

O'Shea

Improving supervision by Chief Petty
Officers in the Navy through formal
training.

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IMPROVING SUPERVISION BY CHIEF PETTY
OFFICERS IN THE NAVY THROUGH FORMAL TRAINING:
A REVIEW AND A PROPOSAL

A Thesis

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree Master of Science in Public Administration

BY

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The Ohio State University
1952

Approved by:

Adviser

RESEARCH CONDUCTED BY THE
DIVISION OF THE NAVY THROUGH THE
NAVY AND A REPORT

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1952

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Chairman

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Industry and the military forces have always recognized the importance of supervision. The role of the supervisor at the lower level, however, has assumed greater significance in recent years -- seemingly in direct proportion to the expansions made in the two organizations. Industry has acknowledged this by providing its personnel with planned supervisory development, a major aspect of which has been formal classroom training. The target for the biggest share in supervisory training has been the industrial foremen, who comprise the largest group of supervisors in our industrial economy; and much credit for the success of our industrial expansion during World War II was attributed to the supervisory training which prepared these foremen for the huge task of planning, organizing, and controlling the work of the great influx of untrained workers to the defense industries. Postwar research into many phases of supervision, and management's increased realization that supervisory training pays good dividends, have been instrumental factors in maintenance of high priority in this field. The value of such training is adequately voiced by Fisher's recent statement that, "It is not just a coincidence that the better managed companies are spend-

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Industry and the military forces have always worked
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Industry has acknowledged this by providing the personnel
with planned supervisory development, a major aspect of which
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these leaders for the high task of planning, organizing,
and controlling the work of the great influx of untrained
workers in the defense industries. Further research into
many phases of supervisory and management's increased reali-
zation that supervisory training was past division, have
been instrumental factors in maintenance of high efficiency
in this field. The value of such training is especially
evident by Fisher's recent statement that, "it is not just
a coincidence that the better managed companies are spend-

ing a great deal of time and money in developing their management personnel at both the supervisory and executive level."¹

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The Navy too has recognized the importance both of supervision and of training. Emphasis on foreman training in industry has suggested a comparative study of the supervisory training of the Chief Petty Officer, selected here as a tentative Navy counterpart to the industrial foreman. Recent literature² and personal observations of the author based on over ten years of naval experience aboard ship, in a training activity, and in an aircraft squadron, indicate that formal classroom training in supervision plays no large role in the preparatory experience of Chief Petty Officers. This present investigation, therefore, is a review of the supervisory training methods presently used in industry which might profitably be adopted for classroom training of Chief Petty Officers in the Navy.

A recent survey among seventy-five companies which are considered leaders in the field of industrial supervisory training, revealed that the vast majority now

¹ Waldo E. Fisher, Development of Supervisory Personnel, Bulletin No. 20, Industrial Relations Section, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, 1941, p. 5.

² "Leadership Program," U.S. Naval Training Bulletin, October 1948, pp. 17-21.

for a great deal of time and money in developing their management personnel at both the supervisory and executive levels.

STUDY OF THE PROBLEM

The study was designed to determine the degree of cooperation and of training, emphasis on formal training in formal or non-formal training, and the degree of cooperation in formal or non-formal training of the United States Office, selected departments, and a representative group of the business community. The study was designed to determine the degree of cooperation and of training, emphasis on formal training in formal or non-formal training, and the degree of cooperation in formal or non-formal training of the United States Office, selected departments, and a representative group of the business community. The study was designed to determine the degree of cooperation and of training, emphasis on formal training in formal or non-formal training, and the degree of cooperation in formal or non-formal training of the United States Office, selected departments, and a representative group of the business community.

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¹ John L. Fisher, *Development of Management Personnel*, McGraw-Hill, 1948, pp. 1-11.
² "Leadership Training," *U.S. Army Training Bulletin*, 1948, pp. 1-11.
³ "Leadership Training," *U.S. Army Training Bulletin*, 1948, pp. 1-11.

acknowledge it as a continuing responsibility.³ This study accordingly is concerned with Chief Petty Officer training within local commands, since these are the most feasible locations for continuous training. The term local command refers to a Navy unit such as an aircraft squadron, ship, or station.

TERMINOLOGY

Clarification of terminology lends further definition to the problem. Supervisor has been defined as any person who is in formal control over others, irrespective of his high or low status in the hierarchy.⁴ As used herein, only those two or three lower levels of supervisors, frequently designated as line supervisors, are considered. Industry has usually referred to the foreman as a supervisor in this category; hence, the two terms are used interchangeably.

The Chief Petty Officer appears to be the nearest Navy counterpart to the industrial foreman. His position is the top enlisted grade in the Navy, above which come the warrant officer and then the commissioned ranks. Many of the references to the Chief Petty Officer might apply to petty officers of lower grades, since they too are super-

³ Conference Board Report, Developments in Supervisory Training, Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 124, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc. New York, p. 6.

⁴ John M. Pfiffner, The Supervision of Personnel, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1951, p. 6.

Accordingly it is a continuing responsibility. This study accordingly is concerned with what other factors within local commands, since there are the most feasible locations for continuous training. The two local command before it a very good work as an almost regular, well.

Classification of technology fields further delineated to the studies. Technology has been defined as any person who is in formal control over others, irrespective of his place or how related to the hierarchy.⁶ It is used herein only those two or three lower levels of hierarchy. Technology is considered as time expenditures, are considered, industry has usually referred to the forward as a technology in this category; hence, the two terms are used interchangeably.

The Chief Petty Officer appears to be the closest navy counterpart to the industrial foreman. His position is the one enlisted grade in the Navy, above which come the warrant officers and then the commissioned ranks. Many of the references to the Chief Petty Officer apply to other officers of lower grades, since that too are common-

11. John A. Miller, Jr., Division of Personnel,
U.S. Army, Washington, D.C.

visors in many instances. However, for purposes of this study, they have been excluded.

Supervision connotes the development of individual strengths and the direction of activities of a group in such a way as to effect improvement in an organization of which the supervisor is a part. Rather than the performance of a mechanical task, the term implies the coordination of the efforts of one or more subordinates. As such, supervision is often labelled administrative leadership and is accompanied with authority to make decisions which will affect the work procedures of others. The extent of such authority and the qualifications demanded, vary with the position of the supervisor in the hierarchical structure. In analyzing the requirements of supervisors at the foreman level, one source lists the three major areas of knowledge and responsibility as: (1) job skill, (2) job management and (3) man management.⁵ Job skill includes the technical skills, knowledges, and abilities which the supervisor needs for the job. Job management responsibilities include planning, organizing, and controlling the work for all of the subordinates. Man management includes the training and handling of people. The term supervision was purposely selected in lieu of leadership; the connotation intended

⁵ Robert D. Loken and Earl P. Strong, Supervision in Business and Industry, Funk and Wagnalls Company, New York, 1949, p. 9.

is "leadership in the work situation" rather than the usual concept of military leadership. Separation of the two is admittedly difficult in the execution of the Chief Petty Officer's duties; however, the emphasis in this study is on the work situation.

TRAINING POLICY WITHIN LOCAL COMMANDS

The Navy spends a large proportion of its time and energy in training, for the success or failure of any of its assigned missions may depend on its operational readiness, as determined by its training. Unit training is administered by the higher echelons; individual training within the unit is directed largely by the local command. Since wide discretion in the selection and emphasis of areas of individual training for officers and men within a command is allowed the commanding officer of the squadron, ship, or station, consideration might be given to this present study by those commands whose Chief Petty Officers are noticeably poor supervisors.

OBJECTIVES

The ultimate objective of the study is a proposal for improving supervision of Chief Petty Officers through formal training at the local level. In achieving this, the relative merits of formal training as compared to on-the-job instruction, experience, and other methods of supervisory

development, are not debated. Other objectives include a determination of the nature of supervision and a review of the methods and effectiveness of industrial supervisory training.

METHODOLOGY

In Chapter II support for comparison of the Chief Petty Officer with the foreman is sought, using the previously mentioned definition of supervision as a basis. The comparison is extended to a historical review of evolving concepts of these two types of supervisors and their supervisory training.

Chapter III describes the responsibility for the various types of training in the Navy and considers the influence that the Bureau of Personnel exerts over formal schooling within its authority and over local training throughout the Navy.

In Chapter IV the nature of supervision and the practicability of its acquisition through training, are discussed. The views held by research workers on the one side, and by military and industrial men on the other, are considered.

In Chapter V the methods and techniques used in foreman training which might be applicable to Chief Petty Officer training are described in fairly lengthy detail.

Government, and not a single other objective factor is
demonstrated as the basis of repression and a basis
of the present and attempted suppression of individual expression.

in Chapter II support the conclusion of the Chief
that there is no connection between the
-1945-1946 period and the present. The
by the National Commission of Inquiry as a result. The
Commission is authorized to conduct a thorough review of existing
evidence at that time and place of investigation and shall report

Chapter III discusses the responsibility for the various types of training in the Navy and summarizes the findings and some of the personnel issues that are raised. Chapter IV is devoted to the personnel issues that are raised by the various types of training and to the personnel issues that are raised by the various types of training.

in Chapter IV the scope of cooperation and the
possibility of its realization through political, eco-
nomic, and other means. The above said by reason of the
fact that military and industrial cooperation is the
most important.

Other studies are described in fairly general detail. Concern training which is available to most large In Chapter V the methods and techniques used in

Chapter VI concludes the study with a brief summary, accompanied by conclusions and recommendations.

SOURCES OF MATERIAL AND LIMITATIONS

A wide variety of the abundant material available on foremen served as reference material for the historical development of the foreman, supervisory training, and the effectiveness of training methods. Surveys of supervisory training by the National Industrial Conference Board and bulletins on supervisory personnel prepared by the Industrial Relations Section of the California Institute of Technology, were consulted frequently for the latest developments in supervisory training. These were supplemented by recent information from periodicals dealing with the approaches being made to supervisory training problems. A recent thesis by Skells,⁶ and Leiter's "The Foreman in Industrial Relations,"⁷ were helpful in establishing the basis for comparison of the foreman with the Chief Petty Officer.

Limitations must be placed on the documentation of the historical development of the Chief Petty Officer and his local training, since a lack of textbooks or surveys was encountered. However, the present status of the Chief

⁶ James F. Skells, "A Comparison Between the Position of the Foreman in Industry and the Non-commissioned Officer in the Army." Unpublished Masters Thesis, Ohio State University, 1950.

⁷ Robert D. Leiter, The Foreman In Industrial Relations, Columbia University Press, New York, 1948.

Petty Officer and his training are based on the author's personal experience, consultation with his colleagues, recent Navy periodicals, and official publications, and are considered reliable for the purposes of this investigation.

CHAPTER II

A COMPARISON STUDY OF THE FOREMAN WITH THE CHIEF PETTY OFFICER

BASIS FOR COMPARISON

Most authorities on the subject of supervision refer to the foreman as a key man in industry. They base this belief mainly on the fact that he is the connecting link between the executive and the worker; and that, because of him, the work gets done. In much the same light the Chief Petty Officer has been referred to as the "backbone" of the Navy; he represents the connecting link between the officer hierarchy and the worker group composed of the lower enlisted ratings. A conclusion reached as a result of a recent comparison study of the position of the foreman with the non-commissioned officer in the Army, lends further support to the comparison of the foreman with the Chief Petty Officer (since the Chief Petty Officer corresponds to the non-commissioned officer used in the study). When tested against twelve ingredients of a sound personnel administration, the author concluded that the foreman and the non-commissioned officer occupy the same relative positions in the line of authority.¹

Further basis for comparison can be found by listing the functions of the supervisors under the three areas of

¹ Skells, op. cit., p. 58.

A COMPARISON OF THE FOREMAN WITH
THE CHIEF CITY OFFICIALTHE FOREMAN

Most authorities on the subject of supervisory relief
 to the foreman as a job man in industry. They have this
 belief mainly on the fact that he is the connecting link
 between the executive and the worker; and that, because of
 this, the work gets done. In such the case, the chief
 city official has been referred to as the "backbone" of
 the city; he represents the connecting link between the
 official hierarchy and the worker group composed of the
 lower ranked citizens. A connection regarded as a result
 of a recent comparison study of the position of the foreman
 with the non-commissioned officer in the army, James Egan
 has reported on the comparison of the foreman with the
 chief city official (since the chief city official occupies
 a position in the non-commissioned officer rank in the army).
 This raised against twelve arguments of a kind somewhat
 analogous. The writer concludes that the foreman and
 the non-commissioned officer occupy the same relative
 position in the line of authority.¹

Further facts for comparison can be found by listing
 the functions of the supervisor under the same head of

¹ Egan, op. cit., p. 30.

responsibility which were listed in the aforementioned definition of supervision (i.e., job skill, job management, and man management), and checking the functions of the Chief Petty Officers against them. The functions listed are those determined by a Philadelphia Company which has been conducting supervisory conferences over a period of years and are considered representative of foremen functions in general.²

Functions under the category of job skill will not be listed since they vary for each type of job. Needless to say, the skill, knowledge, and abilities required of a foreman of machinists, carpenters, etc. are comparable to those needed for a Chief Petty Officer machinist, carpenter, etc., in the performance of a job. The "United States Navy Occupational Handbook"³ and "Table of Occupational Relationships"⁴ provide validity for this comparison by relating job skills required for specialties in the Navy with those similarly required in industrial jobs. The former is a manual for civilian guidance counselors and Navy classification officers and is a detailed factual presentation of all phases of the Navy's occupational structure. Vocational briefs covering the major job families in the Navy are pre-

²

Fisher, op. cit., pp. 16-19.

³

U.S. Navy, United States Navy Occupational Handbook.

⁴

Bureau of Naval Personnel, Table of Occupational Relationships, Part 1, NavPers 15834, June, 1951.

sented, and include the duties and responsibilities, specific tasks performed, work assignments, qualifications and preparation, training given, and related civilian jobs for each. (See Appendix I for attached sample). The second publication correlates the relationships of civilian occupations to Navy specialties by matching Navy Job Classification codes and titles with corresponding numbers and titles given in the "Dictionary of Occupational Titles" for civilian jobs.

The functions of job management, often called managerial functions, are:

1. Planning each day's work in advance.
2. Coordinating the activities of the employees and the work process.
3. Inspecting work, materials, etc.
4. Seeing that equipment is maintained in good condition.
5. Safeguarding the health and safety of the employees.
6. Seeing that working conditions are kept up to standard (good housekeeping).
7. Maintaining quality.
8. Conserving supplies and materials (waste prevention).
9. Keeping productions and other records.
10. Preparing reports.
11. Cooperating with other executives.

and include the duties and responsibilities, specific
to each position, and assignment, classification and
position, within the, and related division for
each. This is the first step in the process.
The second
question concerns the relationship of civilian
positions to the specialized or military Navy or civilian
positions and their also corresponding numbers and titles
given in the "Directory of Governmental Units" for civil-
ian jobs.

The function of the management, often called manager-
ial functions, are:

1. Planning each day's work in advance.
2. Coordinating the activities of the employees
and the work process.
3. Inspiring work, materials, etc.
4. Seeing that equipment is maintained in good
condition.
5. Supervising the work and safety of the
employees.
6. Seeing that working conditions are kept
up to standard (good housekeeping).
7. Maintaining quality.
8. Controlling quality and materials
usage.
9. Keeping personnel and other records.
10. Keeping records.
11. Cooperating with other agencies.

12. Assuming responsibility for errors and mistakes of their subordinates.
13. Passing on to their superiors pertinent information about employees and their work.

Without listing these functions again, the author, from past personal experience aboard ship, in a training command, and in an aircraft squadron, notes that the variously employed Chief Petty Officers perform these same general functions, although sometimes in greater or less degree. These observations are further supported by reference to the "United States Navy Occupational Handbook" which mentions some of these same job management functions for the Navy Petty Officer. It specifically states that the petty officers in the higher grades perform the more responsible duties of supervision and instruction, thus paralleling the foreman's job management functions of planning, organizing, and controlling the work of subordinates.

Another Navy source giving written analysis of the supervisory functions of the Chief Petty Officer classifies them under five headings -- knowledge of: the job, policy, how to handle men, job methods, and instructional methods.⁵ An extract of these five classes of supervisory knowledge required by the Navy supervisor is included as Appendix II,

⁵ Bureau of Naval Personnel, The Shipboard Training Manual, Standards and Curriculum Division, March, 1948, pp. 8-9.

12. Assuming responsibility for errors and
mistakes of their subordinates.

13. Working on the staff supervisor's position
information about employees and their
work.

Various kinds of work functions again, the worker,

from past personal experience should not, in a training

process, and in an already experienced, where that the per-

sonally employed under their different parts there are

general functions, although sometimes in practice the less

degrees. These observations are further supported by other

work to the "United States Navy Operational Handbook"

which mentions some of these areas for management functions

for the Navy Staff Officer. It specifically states that

the staff officer in the United States Navy has four

responsibilities: that of supervision and instruction, that

of planning the formation's management functions of man-

aging, organizing, and controlling the work of subordinates,

and that they should give written analysis of the

operational functions of the Staff Officer classified

then under five headings -- knowledge of the job, policy,

the in hand's work, job methods, and instructional systems.

An aspect of these five elements of supervisory knowledge

required of the staff supervisor is included in Appendix II.

Source of Staff Supervisor, The United States
Navy, Training and Development Division, 1964, p. 12.

since it adds continued evidence to the similarity in job management functions as listed above, and the man management functions which follow.

The final category, and the one often considered the most important, is man management. It includes the following functions:

1. Selecting new employees in line with the hiring policies of the company and the limits of their authority.
2. Helping to induct new employees.
3. Interpreting company policies and regulations to their employees.
4. Training their workers to perform their jobs safely and efficiently.
5. Giving orders and assigning duties and responsibilities.
6. Maintaining discipline.
7. Handling complaints and grievances.
8. Building employee morale.
9. Keeping their employees informed about proposed changes that will affect him.
10. Letting employees know how they are "getting along."
11. Looking after the comforts of their employees.
12. Developing employees by means of training, transfers, and promotion.
13. Securing employee cooperation.
14. Helping their employees who are in trouble.

It is also necessary to have a clear understanding of the
 management functions as they relate to the business
 functions which follow.

The first category, and the one often considered the
 most important, is the management. It includes the follow-

ing functions:

1. Selection and supervision of the staff and the
 other personnel of the company and the
 limits of their authority.
2. Seeing to it that the staff and the
 other personnel are properly supervised and
 controlled.
3. Establishing a system of control and
 supervision.
4. Giving orders and assigning duties and
 responsibilities.
5. Maintaining discipline.
6. Establishing standards and objectives.
7. Establishing a system of control and
 supervision.
8. Establishing a system of control and
 supervision.
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15. Establishing a system of control and
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16. Establishing a system of control and
 supervision.

One acquainted with Navy life will note that with the possible exception of the first function, the Chief Petty Officer controls, in much the same degree, these same man management (leadership) functions. The unit Chief Petty Officer is responsible for inducting the new enlisted man to the ship, squadron, or station. He interprets local regulations for the newcomer, trains him to perform safely and efficiently, gives orders, maintains discipline, handles complaints, and is responsible for building his morale. Likewise, the Chief Petty Officer informs the enlisted man of the "latest word", lets him know how he is progressing, looks after his personal comforts, aids in his development by means of training and recommendations for promotion, secures his cooperation, and aids him when he is in trouble.

The foregoing analysis provides continued validity for the analogy made in 1919 that the "foremen are the non-commissioned officers of industry."⁶ The above listed functions of supervisors are general rather than specific - necessarily so since they vary among companies and seem in a constant state of change. In tracing the history of the foreman and Chief Petty Officer it will be shown how and why some of these functions have changed.

FOREMAN - PAST AND PRESENT

The abundance of literature about the foreman seems to describe him by two methods; one, a personality description based on the way he handles people, and two, a functional description based on his duties. Both descriptions are herein combined and presented as "a typical foreman." A composite description is important since it determined to a great extent the content and evolution of foreman training courses.

Several suggestions for the stages of development in the evolution of today's foreman have been offered, but the one which seems most applicable in this comparison study is the three-stage development where the emphasis on the basic qualification for a foreman changed from physical competence, to technical competence, and more recently to human relations competence.

The foreman of the first, or physical competence stage, was the owner of the company or his direct representative in the shop. Grimshaw has described him as follows: "The old type of foreman - now happily almost extinct - was often little better than the plantation overseer in the slavery days before our Civil War; he was not far removed from the two-fisted mate of the windjammer."⁷ His

⁷ Robert Grimshaw, Foreman Past and Present, Biddle Business Publications, Inc., New York, 1921, p. 25.

functions were all inclusive; he hired his own workers, decided their rates of pay, imposed his own regulations, determined his own standards of conduct and performance, and dismissed them when it was his whim to do so.⁸ Operating under the belief in "rule by divine right," the foreman relied heavily on discipline as the means for promoting production. One source states, "years ago the conception of a good foreman was a person who could make his subordinates produce, and the meaning of the word 'make' was often interpreted quite literally. His function was to force production."⁹

The second stage, that which emphasized technical competence, occurred near the end of the 19th century when mass production methods and large concerns came into being.¹⁰ The foreman of this era was not entirely devoid of the driver-type characteristics of his predecessor; however, he was chosen more on the basis of his technical skill than on his physical competence, and he was told, but not forced, to become a "leader" rather than a "driver". In 1920 Ordway Tead quoted Henry S. Dennison, president of

⁸ W. D. Scott and H. C. Clothier, Personnel Management, A. W. Shaw Company, Chicago and New York, 1925, pp. 438-446.

⁹ Edwin E. Ghiselli and Clarence W. Brown, Personnel and Industrial Psychology, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1948, pp. 360-361.

¹⁰ Skells, op. cit., p. 7.

the Dennison Manufacturing Company, as stating that he doubted that there could not be found some sample of the "bellowing-bull" type of foremanship in every factory.¹¹

A typical foreman of this stage, however, is adequately described as follows:

With rare exceptions foremen as a class are men of mature years with well-established habits and with much practical experience to their credit. Reliable statistics show that the typical foreman has climbed up from the ranks, and that he has had little formal schooling beyond that required by law. In fact, a considerable percentage of them somehow escaped even complying with the law, their education, barring limited knowledge of the three R's, being obtained in the 'school of hard knocks'.¹²

During this second stage there appeared major changes to the functions of the foreman which seriously affected his position in industry. Leiter states, "The loss of the powers and responsibilities of the foreman was the result of technological, organizational, and functional development of industry."¹³

Whereas the foreman was in complete control of his production schedule until shortly before World War I, the application of the principle of division of labor with the

¹¹ Ordway Tead, "The Problem of Incentives and Output," Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, May, 1920, pp. 170-179.

¹² D. J. MacDonald, Executive Training for Foremen, Ronald Press Company, New York, 1920, p. 2.

¹³ Leiter, op. cit., p. 34.

The United States Government is making this
 statement that this is the first time in the
 history of the world that a country has been
 "disarmed" by the type of disarmament in every country.
 A typical example of this kind, however, is completely dis-
 armament as follows:

It is the responsibility of the United States
 Government to make sure that the United States
 Government is the only one in the world that
 is not making any kind of disarmament. The
 United States Government is the only one in the
 world that is not making any kind of disarmament.
 The United States Government is the only one in the
 world that is not making any kind of disarmament.
 The United States Government is the only one in the
 world that is not making any kind of disarmament.
 The United States Government is the only one in the
 world that is not making any kind of disarmament.

During this period there appeared major changes
 in the function of the Government which seriously affected its
 position in industry. After that, the loss of the power
 and responsibility of the Government was the result of the
 industrial, organizational, and technical development of
 industry.

During the period was in complete control of the
 Government's economic and social policy. The
 Government of the United States was in complete control of the
 Government's economic and social policy.

11. "The United States Government is the only one in the world that is not making any kind of disarmament." (The United States Government is the only one in the world that is not making any kind of disarmament.)

12. "The United States Government is the only one in the world that is not making any kind of disarmament." (The United States Government is the only one in the world that is not making any kind of disarmament.)

resultant use of specialists and staff personnel, and the growth and complexity of industrial organization, removed many of the production functions from him.

Centralization of control over production was necessarily followed in the 1920's by the advent of the personnel department in order to maintain uniformity of personnel policies throughout the factory. The supervisor now shared the right to hire and fire with the personnel department, and in many cases he made only recommendations regarding these two functions.¹⁴

Loss of his power to fire, the advent of the union shop steward or shop committeeman as a buffer between himself and the worker, and the expanded influence of staff and functional departments, have altered the job and status of the foreman. One study has found:

These long term trends in the foremen's responsibilities and authority may be summarized as: (1) a drop in the foreman's authority (2) a drop in the foreman's responsibility for making policies (3) a rise in the foreman's responsibility for executing policies.¹⁵

This does not mean that the foreman has lost the position as a key man; rather does it shift the emphasis from technical competence as the basic requirement for a foreman, to human relations competence.

¹⁴ Ibid., pp. 33-34.

¹⁵ Sumner H. Slichter and others, "Report and Findings of a Panel of the N.W.L.B. in Certain Disputes Involving Supervisors," 1945, p. 41.

President and of specialists who shall personally and the
 system and complexity of industrial organization, research
 many of the production function from him.

Generalization of control over production and dis-
 semination of knowledge in the 1920's by the advent of the person-
 nel department is shown as a significant development of personnel
 political management in industry. The department now shares
 the right to hire and fire with the personnel department,
 and in many cases he was only recommendations regarding
 these two functions.¹⁴

Loss of his power to hire, the advent of the union
 was related to both developments as a barrier between him-
 self and the worker, and the expanded influence of which and
 functional departments, have altered the job and status of
 the foreman. The study has found:

These four developments in the foreman's position
 diminish and eventually may be eliminated as:
 (1) a step in the foreman's authority (2) a
 step in the foreman's responsibility for making
 policies (3) a rise in the foreman's responsibility
 for the operation of the plant.¹⁵

This does not mean that the foreman has lost his position
 as a very important person in the industrial firm, but
 that competence in the basic requirements for a foreman is
 human relations competence.

14 Ibid., pp. 10-11.
 15 Robert H. Miller and others, "Human Relations Problems
 on a Plant of the A. L. S. in Certain Industries in the
 Department," 1927, p. 11.

There are many who feel that we are now on the threshold of this third stage in the development of the foreman - the human relations phase. Some organizations have selected candidates with little or no job skill, but with excellent qualifications for training and handling people, on the basis that it is easier to teach the required job skill than the management and training skills.¹⁶ This is far from being a widely used procedure, but it does emphasize a point which current literature indicates emphatically -- that training foremen in human relations has almost become a necessity. One source indicates a prevalent belief among many companies:

As we review industry and management and especially the case material assembled in the literature, we see that the handling of manpower has almost invariably been the most important factor in the problem involved. Facing an age of competition, we see plainly that the industry which excels in manpower control, i.e., in the development and utilization of the human element, is bound to win out.¹⁷

The present day foreman is apparently being forced by legislation, social pressure, and other forces, to consider the human element more carefully in his dealings with subordinates. The use of physical force is almost entirely omitted, but there is still great emphasis placed on his technical competence. A recent survey on his educational

¹⁶ Loken and Strong, op. cit., p. 9.

¹⁷ Lillian M. Gilbreth and Alice R. Cook, The Foreman In Manpower Management, 1947, pp. 4-5.

They are not the first time we have seen the first-
 said of this kind of thing in the possession of the system -
 the same feeling, however, that the system has raised
 themselves with little or no effort, but with great
 difficulties for training and handling people, on the
 basis that it is easier to teach the required job skills than
 the management and training skills.¹⁶ This is far from being
 a widely used procedure, and it does emphasize a policy which
 requires discipline followed meticulously -- this avoiding
 freedom in human relations has almost become a necessity.
 One source indicates a somewhat better view of discipline:

As we enter industry and management and
 especially the more complex situations in
 the business, we see that the discipline
 of management has almost invariably been the
 most important factor in the business in-
 volved. Before an age of competition, we
 see clearly that the industry which excels
 in management control, i.e., in the business-
 men and utilization of the human element,
 is bound to win out.¹⁷

The business and industry is especially being tested by
 legislation, social pressure, and other factors, to consider
 the human element more carefully in its dealings with the
 individual. The use of physical force is almost entirely
 rejected, but there is still great emphasis placed on the
 physical punishment. A recent survey on this educational

¹⁶ Lewis and Brown, op. cit., p. 3.

¹⁷ William A. Miller and Alice E. Cook, The Business
 in Economic Management, 1961, pp. 1-2.

background reveals it to be higher than his predecessor, but still relatively low. A check of statistics in four companies recently revealed that among the present day foremen, about half of them did not continue their education beyond grammar school, only 30% graduated from high school, and out of 12% attending college, only 3.4% received degrees.¹⁸

HISTORY OF FOREMAN TRAINING

Foremanship training was the third phase of the broad field of American industrial training and did not become prevalent until World War I. Early emphasis was on training of executives and technical experts, and this was accomplished through colleges and technical schools. Next, the training of workers became important in the 1880's and attained national attention in the passage of the Federal Vocational Education Act.¹⁹

The earliest type of foreman training, although not formally designed as such, is individual coaching on the job. Uris indicated the prevalent lack of formal training for the supervisor at the beginning of this century by stating, "Not many years ago there was only one way to learn how to be a foreman -- or how to be a better one.

¹⁸ Fisher, op. cit., p. 6.

¹⁹ Federal Board for Vocational Education, Bulletin No. 36, op. cit., p. 55.

That was to get a foreman's job and practise it."²⁰ The shortcomings of this trial and error method were realized, especially as functionalization and specialization became prevalent under expanded and mass production techniques. Some pioneer efforts were directed towards improving supervision through formal training, but they were limited to the larger companies because of the expense involved and because the training methods were still in the experimental stage. Of those instituted, the methods of presentation used most commonly were lecture, conference, and text study. In paralleling the typical foreman of the time, the emphasis in the training was placed on cost efficiency and technical competence in the interests of greater production. The difficulties experienced in foreman training up to World War I were "in connection with mistaken or undefined aims, unsuitable instructors, improper conditions, work based on unsuitable educational theory, and unorganized work."²¹

World War I provided the first significant impetus to foreman training. Postwar interest and activity in this field were continued because the value of properly organized training and its definite results were demonstrated and because the "weak link" (the foreman) in the indus-

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Auren Uris, Improved Foremanship, Macmillan Company, New York, 1948, preface.

²¹

Federal Board For Vocational Education, op. cit., p. 55.

[illegible]

trial chain had to be strengthened so that production methods would be efficient to meet anticipated foreign competition.²²

Some indication of the prevalence of foremanship training courses in this period is given in two surveys taken in the 1920's. The Department of Manufacture revealed knowledge of 105 foremanship courses between June, 1924 and June, 1925, 324 courses in the following year, and 933 in 1926-1927 period.²³ Another survey conducted in 4,409 small plants, each employing 250 workers or less, and in 1,676 plants, each employing more than 250 workers, revealed organized foremanship training in 4.9% of the small plants, and 19.2% of the larger ones.²⁴

The lecture, text study, and group conference, frequently used in combination, were still the most commonly used training methods. There was wide variety in course content, but in keeping with the typical foreman of the period, the emphasis was on technical training, production methods, and other mechanical functions of the foreman. The training in human relations was in most cases neglected as being less important.

²²

Ibid., p. 53.

²³

Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Typical Foremanship Programs and Topics, Department of Manufacture, 1928, p. 1

²⁴

National Industrial Conference Board, Industrial Relations Programs in Small Plants, 1929, pp. 16-18.

During World War I, a new method of classroom training was introduced by C. R. Allen; it was known as the project method of training.²⁵ Sometimes referred to as the case method, it was used in conferences as a method of introducing typical problems of supervision. Advance preparation was made by committees on assigned problems to discover authoritative answers from literature or their experience. The findings were then discussed and an attempt was made to form conclusions on which all could agree.

The activity in training apparently decreased around 1930. One source attributes this decrease to management's conclusion that "the foremen were destined to become increasingly unimportant as management came to assume the responsibility for planning, routing, and making all important decisions as to policy."²⁶ Another cites the depression as the prime cause for the lack of continued training. Both were undoubtedly contributing factors; the point made is that foreman training was receding and was still at a low ebb as compared to the activity and interest exerted today.

During World War II supervisory training received its second and most important stimulus. Fern gives vivid illustration of this by stating, "Between July 1, 1940 and

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Dale Yoder, Personnel Management and Industrial Relations, USAFI Vol. I, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1942, p. 237.

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Loc. cit.

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July 1, 1944 approximately 2,000,000 supervisors employed in war production industries had been trained or upgraded through organized programs."²⁷ The claimed merits in this statement might be debated, but it does present a true picture of the activity in supervisory training.

Since the war, many companies have conducted programs for the first time, and more experienced ones have intensified their efforts. In 1946 a survey among 3500 companies revealed that 33.5% of them were conducting supervisory training and development programs.²⁸ A later report in 1952 by the National Industrial Conference Board states that training and development of foremen and supervisors is presently at an all-time high.²⁹

The endless variety of supervisory training activities emerges as one of the most significant findings of this latest survey. With the emphasis being gradually shifted to human relations training, the use of role-playing and case study methods have become more widespread, along with the continued use of the lecture, conference, and visual aids. It is the purpose of a later chapter to describe

²⁷ George H. Fern, Training for Supervision in Industry, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1945, p. 1.

²⁸ National Industrial Conference Board, Personnel Activities in American Business (Revised); Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 86, New York, 1947, p. 17.

²⁹ Conference Board Report No. 124, op. cit., p. 3.

It is the purpose of a paper written by the author, to discuss the various factors which have influenced the development of the Japanese economy, and to show how the Japanese have been able to overcome the difficulties which have confronted them. The paper is divided into three main parts: the first part deals with the historical background of the Japanese economy; the second part deals with the factors which have influenced the development of the Japanese economy; and the third part deals with the future of the Japanese economy.

these methods for possible use in improving supervision by Chief Petty Officers.

THE CHIEF PETTY OFFICER AND HIS LOCAL TRAINING

This part of the study is subject to the limitation noted previously concerning the lack of authentic documentation on the history of the Chief Petty Officer and his classroom training at the local level. Naval historians have been concerned mostly with the accomplishments of the whole Naval force, individual ships, or often famous officers; but their interest in accurately describing the enlisted man has been almost totally missing. The formal training in Navy schools has been publicized widely through Navy publications, but this differs from local training in that it is rigidly controlled by the Bureau of Personnel and is of short duration. The effect of this formal schooling on the enlisted man as it relates to his supervisory development is discussed in the following chapter. Also to be clarified in that connection is the influence of the Bureau of Personnel on local training and how it is exerted.

Further difficulty is encountered because local classroom supervisory training for Chief Petty Officers has not been differentiated from other local training which is reported on monthly or quarterly forms. Also, observations of that local training which is conducted throughout

these reports for months and in the meantime

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THE CHIEF CLERK AND HIS LOCAL OFFICE

This part of the report is subject to the limitation

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the Navy, have not been compiled and disseminated as they have frequently been in industry in the form of surveys of foreman training. Consequently, the author's personal experience, consultation with his colleagues, and some data available in training magazines, are combined to present a brief view of the history of the Chief Petty Officer and his local training. First, the evolution of the Chief Petty Officer will be described; this is followed by an example of his training based on the past experience of the author.

The development of the Chief Petty Officer has been similar to the three-stage development of the foreman; hence, the discussion will parallel rather closely that of his industrial counterpart. Most of the references to the two-fisted mate as the early American petty officer reveal that he was a man of physical competence and that he was selected primarily on that basis. The rugged life of the seas eliminated most of the physically weak, and the strongest of those who remained were made leaders because of their ability to "keep the rest in line." The early training of this petty officer, like that of the early foreman, was accomplished on the job.³⁰ In fact, much local training today is of this category. While not objecting to on-the-job training as a useful training approach, the reference

³⁰ Bureau of Naval Personnel, The Story of Naval Manpower, NavPers 15802, p. 10.

the day, have not been working and diminished as they have frequently been in industry in the form of surveys of business training. Consequently, the student's personal interest, connection with his colleagues, and some data available in teaching experience, are combined to present a better view of the history of the Chief Petty Officer and his social position. First, the evolution of the Chief Petty Officer will be described. This is followed by an analysis of the existing trends in the field experience of the student. The development of the Chief Petty Officer has been similar to the three-stage development of the Foreman; hence, the discussion will be divided into three stages of his industrial development. First of the Foreman, the two-stage man as the early industrial history officer reveals that he was a man of industrial competence and that he was selected primarily on that basis. The second stage of the man elevated most of the industrial work, and the third stage of those who remained were made leaders of their ability to keep the pace in line. The early evolution of the Chief Petty Officer, the last of the early Foreman, are described on the job. In fact, some have been working today in the industry. While not objecting in any way to working as a naval technician supervisor, the Foreman

is made to show that formal training was not deemed necessary in this period.

"This early selection procedure was superseded by one based primarily on technical competence, for reasons similar to those which were noted in industry. With the advent of metal ships, steam propulsion, intricate gunnery control systems, and finally sonar and radar, the emphasis was placed increasingly on technical competence more than the possession of physical attributes." The change was not immediately effected, however, since prior to World War II there were many examples of the military petty officer exercising the functions of his position in much the same manner as the foreman in industry did at the turn of the century. His word was law, and often times negative leadership, with the use of fear as the prime motivation, was resorted to.³¹

"The increases in size and complexity of the Navy have progressively removed some of the work functions from the Chief Petty Officer; this was especially noticeable after the two world wars." One article written by a former Chief Petty Officer, points to this as follows:

Talking to some of the men who had sweated out the period of unrest following the first war, the old Chief came to the conclusion that the downward trend had begun in the early nineteen-twenties, when the

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Skells, op. cit., p. 32.

to make it clear that the training was not merely military

in this period.

This early training procedure was suggested by the

based primarily on technical competence, for training which

to those who were asked to identify. With the advent of

which stage, which procedure, involving primary control

system, and finally none, and indeed, the procedure was placed

involvement on technical competence was then the procedure

of physical activities." The change was not immediately

effected, however, since prior to 1911 it was

very common of the military to try other methods of

formation of air position in which the same amount of time

formation in industry as at the time of the military. This

was not just, and often times negative results, and the

was of fact as the police and military, and reported to.

The formation in air and company of the army

have progressively formed some of the same formation from

the first military officer this was especially noticeable

after the two world wars. One article written by a former

Chief of the military, which is also an officer

belonging to some of the most famous names

and the period of military training and

that was, and this article was for the first

time that the formation was not only

in the early military training. When the

finding of employment for the many excess junior officer had taken away some of the duties of the chiefs' ratings, mainly of leadership, thereby putting quite a crimp in the 'Backbone of the Navy!'³²

The expansions in industry, accompanied by technological, organizational, and functional development, were cited previously as causes which changed the functions of the foremen. The Navy's expansion, with its accompanied changes, has likewise altered some of the Chief Petty Officer's functions. Whereas formerly there were only the deck and engineering divisions, now there are many divisions to cover the various technical specialties. For example, the old time chief of the engineering division was responsible for the entire propulsion and accessory equipment; today his responsibility is limited to one of the four phases of the engineering department -- boilers, main engines, auxiliaries, or electrical machines.

Skells mentions that the union and personnel movements in industry, which emphasized the rights and dignity of the individual as constituting a powerful force, caused a re-evaluation of leadership relationships and techniques in the military forces as well as everywhere else.³³ In addition, the expansion and widening of educational oppor-

³² J. M. Spring, "Petty Officers - Old and New," U.S. Naval Institute Proceedings, October, 1950, Vol. 76, no. 10, p. 1105.

³³ Skells, op. cit., p. 33.

tunities introduced a change in our social structure whereby the individual, military or civilian, asked for and expected fair treatment and recognition. The former Chief of Naval Personnel recognized military acceptance of this by the following message to all naval personnel:

We say leadership must keep pace with 'social' advance, because leadership essentially deals with human relations....In our modern democracy, leadership leads rather than drives; one of its functions is to teach and train. While our leaders command, they also show the way.³⁴

In conclusion, the worth and dignity of the individual is a creative force throughout the world; in permeating the Navy, it has made new and different demands on the Navy supervisor, if he is to function efficiently in the work situation.

A prevalent opinion today applauds the technical competence of the Chief Petty Officer as being of high order, but it criticizes his leadership ability as being far below required standards. This opinion is supported by comments made by flag officers to the Bureau of Personnel in 1948. In criticizing a common practice, one comment states specifically that, "enlisted men are recommended for promotion with little or no thought being given to their leadership abilities."³⁵ The result has been obvious; today's Chief Petty

³⁴ T. L. Sprague, "A Message From the Chief of Naval Personnel," U.S. Naval Training Bulletin, Bureau of Naval Personnel, May, 1949, Introd.

³⁵ "Leadership Program", U.S. Naval Training Bulletin October, 1948, p. 20.

Officer is too often a technician and not a leader. Many of the present day Chiefs received their rates during the past war when promotions were rapid for those having good conduct plus technical ability.¹¹ Consequently, the "typical" Navy supervisor still resembles his industrial counterpart; both are primarily technicians. In completing the parallel analysis, although lacking statistics, it is stated confidently that few of the present Chief Petty Officers have attended college. Many have high school diplomas, and not a few have failed to go beyond the first or second year of high school. In conclusion, an assumption is made that the educational backgrounds of the two supervisors are similar.

Little mention has been made thus far of the local training which the Chief Petty Officer undergoes. What classroom training does he receive which is comparable to foreman instruction and which develops his supervisory ability? Using past observations within local units as a basis, the general conclusion is reached that very little instruction, with the exception of the technical aspects of jobs, is given to the job management and man management areas of supervision. The fact that some skill in these seemingly neglected areas is acquired by observation and on the job instruction is not overlooked. However, the opinion is offered that classroom methods conducted on a more permanent basis than now exists would aid considerably

Different is too often a convenient and not a logical. Many
 of the present day writers have been misled by the
 fact that their predecessors were misled by the same error. They
 commonly give themselves the title of "historians," and
 they themselves will remember the historical consequences
 of such an unwarranted assumption. In comparing the present
 situation of the American people, it is not only
 necessary to take into account the present but also the
 past. The fact that the present is not the same as the
 past is not a reason for neglecting the past. The fact
 that the present is not the same as the past is a reason
 for studying the past. The fact that the present is not
 the same as the past is a reason for studying the past.

in the task of upgrading and maintaining the effectiveness of the supervisory forces. If industry has discovered enough valuable material, excluding that concerned with the acquisition of mechanical skills, to warrant continuous programs for purposes of improving the proficiency of their foremen, could not the same assumption be applied to the Navy supervisor? The many benefits derived from industrial methods are mentioned in a later chapter; the proposal indicated here is that, if these procedures are fruitful for industrial usage, their adoption by Navy commands might also prove advantageous.

The majority of the efforts made to coordinate work within a unit consist of the familiarly known meeting. Such Chief Petty Officer conferences or gatherings are convened, more often than not, for purposes of communication of work to be done, proposed operations which require the cooperation and coordination of all sections, or for the solution of pressing problems which have arisen. Such meetings, whether convened at regular or irregular intervals, can not realistically be labelled as training sessions.

To be more specific, an explanation will be given of a Chief Petty Officer conference which was scheduled at weekly intervals for periods of one hour in an aircraft squadron. This, in the experience of the author, is the closest approximation to what would be designated as class-

in the case of remaining and obtaining the citizenship of the territory. It is necessary to be a citizen of the territory in order to be a citizen of the United States. It is necessary to be a citizen of the United States in order to be a citizen of the United States.

program for purposes of improving the availability of
these resources, there are two main assumptions in making the
the Navy dependent. The Navy cannot be divided from the
other services and operations in a later manner. The program
is based on the fact that, if these resources are limited
for operational needs, they should be left available to
the Navy.

The majority of the efforts made for development work within a wide variety of the family group meeting.

[illegible]

room supervisory training. The engineering officer was the conference leader, and the group which attended consisted of approximately forty Chief Petty Officers who were aircraft mechanics, structural repairmen, or electrical and electronic technicians. The combined functions of these supervisors, with the exception of gunnery personnel responsibilities, were to supervise the work of their subordinates so that the squadron aircraft were in safe, flyable condition to meet operational commitments.

Again excluding technical instruction, the following are some of the job management and man management functions which were discussed. Since squadron operations varied greatly from week to week, one of the prime topics was the planning of work in advance so that flight schedules could be effected. The electrician, mechanic, and repairman, could offer estimates on the completion of their particular phases of responsibility in preparing the aircraft for flight. Systems which were used successfully in past experiences of the conferees were discussed pro and con in an effort to improve the coordination needed within the department.

Much time was allocated to instruction in methods for inspection and maintenance of equipment which were peculiar to that type of aircraft assigned to the squadron. A mechanic in charge of an aircraft which had experienced a

even more than before. The following officers are now
 members of the group, and the group will be enlarged
 by approximately 1000 more officers and men, and
 their number, increased, perhaps, to 10,000 and
 electrical technicians. The combined number of these
 inspectors, with the assistance of primary technical respon-
 sibilities, were to operate the work of their laboratories
 so that the system should be able to give results
 from the most practical standpoint.

Again including technical inspectors, the following
 are some of the job assignments and management functions
 which they performed. These functions were carried
 out by the group, and of the group before the war
 planning of work in relation to the electrical system
 is shown. The electrical, mechanical, and electrical
 work of the system in the operation of their electrical
 system of responsibility is providing the electric law
 which is shown with some responsibility in their work-
 place of the system, and the system is shown in the
 effort to improve the operation of the system, and the
 work.

From time was allocated to the system in relation
 to the inspection and maintenance of equipment and the work
 in the type of electrical system in the system. A
 technical in the type of electrical system was developed a

mechanical failure would describe the symptoms of the trouble and corrective measures taken to his colleagues. This exchange of experiences aided others in simplification of their problems and promoted better safety and efficiency.

Another portion of the conference was concerned with instruction on preparing reports and records. Those forms which required action by the chiefs were introduced and explained by the engineering officer, usually by lecture method. The importance of these as a means of keeping the engineering office informed at all times on the status of aircraft readiness and personnel was stressed frequently.

The greatest value derived from these conferences resulted from the communication effected. The Chief Petty Officers were informed constantly of proposed changes which were to affect them and their subordinates, and they were often given opportunity to offer suggestions with regard to the execution of many policies. Their advice was requested on matters such as assignment of personnel within the department, recommendations for advancement of their subordinates to higher ratings, handling personal problems of general interest, and many more.

The conference method, as operated in the above example, could not be classed as adequate leadership instruction. Some help was given to the Chief Petty Officer in coordinating his men and their work, but other import-

medical relief would be the system of the
 medical and scientific services under the
 the system of organization which is being
 of their medical and scientific services and efficiency.
 Another portion of the conference was devoted to
 information on existing reports and records. These reports
 which were being made by the United States Government and
 explained by the participating officials, usually by letter.
 method. The importance of these as a basis of keeping the
 educational officials informed at all times of the status of
 affairs worldwide and national and regional development.
 The greatest value derived from these conferences
 resulted from the communication efforts. The chief benefit
 officials were informed constantly of proposed changes
 which were to affect them and their responsibilities, and they
 were often given opportunity to offer suggestions and con-
 sider to the execution of many policies. Their advice was
 requested on matters which are assigned to personnel with-
 in the department, recommendations for the advancement of their
 subordinates in their ratings, handling personnel problems
 of general interest, and many more.
 The conference method, as outlined in the above ex-
 ample, could not be limited to educational leadership in-
 struction. Some help was given to the United States
 in coordinating the war and health work, for other reasons.

ant phases of supervision were neglected. None of the psychology of leadership nor an understanding of methods for promoting better human relations were discussed. The assumption was made that the Chief Petty Officer had served in the Navy for enough time so that he knew how to handle his men; and this belief could very well have been false. No instruction was given for methods for training his subordinates; again, the supposition was made that because the supervisor was technically qualified, he would be able to transfer such knowledge to others. Other man management functions such as maintaining discipline, handling complaints and grievances, and developing morale could have been stressed as important considerations. Rather than dealing with problems which have already occurred or are considered pressing at the moment, training designed to meet leadership situations before they happen might be more advantageous.

Other units may possibly have better programs than the one described; but none were encountered within the experience of the author. Although this conference accomplished much for this particular squadron, there appears opportunity for improvement based on a combination of training methods similar to ones used in industry. These are described in a later chapter and are offered for consideration by local units such as the aircraft squadron mentioned above.

CHAPTER III

THE BUREAU OF NAVAL PERSONNEL AND ITS RESPONSIBILITIES FOR TRAINING

Since the prime objective of this study is to offer a proposal for supervisory training within local commands, the preceding chapter was confined to Chief Petty Officer training at that level in order to understand the development and current status of any such training. The selection of the local level, as mentioned previously, was based mainly on the fact that this location provided better opportunity for continuous training. However, to ignore completely other training which is available in the Navy would be presenting an incomplete picture of the enlisted man's past experiences in this respect. Since training in the Navy schools has pronounced effect on the overall development of most enlisted men, the present chapter was deemed essential to a better understanding of military training and the mechanics of its operation. Some of the more important questions to be answered are: What types of schools does the Navy conduct for enlisted men? Who is responsible for the administration and supervision of these schools? How does the enlisted man qualify for entrance to them? What, in general, are the courses of instruction offered in these schools, and how much do their contents relate to supervisory development? What relation do these formal schools

and other training courses have to local training? And finally, not the least problem to be considered, is how the proposal of this study or recommendations from field activities for improving training are incorporated for use in the Navy?

FORMAL NAVY TRAINING

The Bureau of Personnel is responsible for recruit, basic, and technical training and education of all personnel of the Navy, both officers and enlisted men, as individuals, except that training which is assigned to other bureaus, offices, or commands.¹ The two notable exceptions include the control of naval aviation training which is exercised by the Deputy Chief of Naval Operations (Air) through the Chief of Naval Air Training and air type commanders, and secondly, the professional and technical education and training of all medical personnel which is administered by the Chief of the Bureau of Medicine and Surgery. A final exception includes fleet schools which, although under management control of the Bureau of Personnel, are under operational control of the Deputy Chief of Naval Operations (Operations). Included as Appendix III is an organizational chart which shows the training responsibilities in

¹ "Responsibilities For Naval Training and Education," U.S. Naval Training Bulletin, August 1951, pp. 1-2.

the naval establishment.² The entire scope of responsibility for school training is presented in simplified form, and the only other enlisted training, which is supplementary to this, includes individual and group instruction at the local levels. For purposes of this discussion the Bureau of Personnel schools and the fleet schools ashore will be described. The exceptions which apply to aviation and medical personnel are excluded since they are under control of their separate bureaus. Their administration is similar to that of the Bureau of Personnel, and the schools and facilities available to personnel in these categories are comparable to those provided for the general service rates.

Prior to a description of the schools available and their curricula it is desirable to mention the various divisions, branches, and sections within the Bureau of Personnel which are concerned directly with specially designated phases of the vast responsibility of the bureau. The administration and support of the Bureau of Personnel Training Program is the direct responsibility of the Training Division, which itself is subdivided into two branches.³ These are designated as the Field Administration Branch

² Ibid., p. 2.

³ "BuPers Training," U.S. Naval Training Bulletin September, 1950, pp. 9-10.

for any individual. The entire scope of responsibility

The school principal is responsible in general for the
the only other related parties, which is responsibility for
this, includes (1) the school and (2) the principal as the joint
entity. For purposes of this discussion the focus of the

school principal and the other parties shall be described.
The responsibility which apply to a school and school principal
are outlined above that are under control of each party.

Responsibility. This responsibility is shared by both of the
parties at the school and the principal and the principal shall
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1988, p. 5.

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"School Principal's Responsibility" (1988, p. 5-10).

and the Standards and Curriculum Branch. The former is responsible for the planning, organizing, administering, and supervising of the Bureau of Personnel schools and is concerned with "the what, the why, the where, and the when of their establishment and operation."⁴ The latter, the Standards and Curriculum Branch, "develops and implements plans with regard to training techniques and procedures; produces and distributes training materials such as curricula, bulletins, manuals, enlisted training courses, correspondence courses, educational services, training aids, and training films."⁵ These functions indicate that the Standards Branch is concerned mostly with the question of how such training under its cognizance is conducted. The broad responsibilities of the two branches are further delegated to sections, which number five in each one.

The Enlisted Training Section has cognizance over the four categories of Bureau of Personnel schools, which are designated as "P", "A", "B", and "C" schools.⁶ Some statistics on the number and the student load reveal the intensity exerted in this formal schooling during World War II and at the present time. Schools operated and supported by the Bureau of Personnel expanded from a prewar

⁴ Ibid., p. 10

⁵ Loc. cit.

⁶ Ibid., pp. 12-13.

total of 100 to approximately 500 during the war, and there are about 200 presently in operation. At the height of wartime activity there were more than 400,000 trainees receiving instruction at one time.⁷ Although these figures include both officer and enlisted schools, a conservative estimate would be that two-thirds of them are established for enlisted men.

The P schools conduct training at the preparatory and basic training level, and the three sources providing candidates are the recruit training centers, quota assignments to commands afloat, and individual requests. A schools provide ground work for general service ratings by technically qualifying the enlisted men for third and second class petty officer ratings. The B schools provide more advanced training, and their curricula qualify the higher rated enlisted men for petty officer first class and the chief ratings. The final category, designated as C type, is established to develop a special skill and includes such specialties as musicians, deep sea divers, personnelmen, motion picture operators, etc. The curricula differ from that of the P, A, and B schools, in that they are not designed to cover the full requirements for a rating.

What are the contents of the above mentioned schools? How do they aid the petty officer to be a supervisor? A

⁷ "The BuPers Training Program," U.S. Naval Training Bulletin, June, 1950, p. 1.

recent visit to Navy schools located at the Memphis and Great Lakes training activities, and including both aviation and general service types, revealed that the major emphasis was allotted to the acquisition of technical skill. The excellence of the instructional methods was noted, and there exists no doubt that the enlisted man attending these schools increases his technical competence. This technical skill would be categorized as job skill under the definition of supervision; its importance is realized as a desirable requirement for those who are to supervise others. However, very few of the job management functions of supervision were emphasized, and this is an important prerequisite of the supervisor. In fact, the job management and man management areas are considered more vital for those whose prime job is the coordination of the work of many subordinates.

Within the formal schooling organization there exist two courses which do train the enlisted man in leadership and instructor functions, and they are comparable to foremanship courses. Instructor training has been an important addition to fleet and service schools. They were established primarily to cultivate teaching ability among those who are to be instructors in the formal schools, and consequently this training is received only by those Chief Petty Officers who have been assigned duty on a teaching

[illegible][illegible]

staff during their careers. This obviously does not include the majority of the Chief Petty Officers in the Navy, therefore much benefit would be derived from an extension of this indoctrination to the maximum number of them, since they could more effectively give instruction to their subordinates in their divisional work within local units.

The second course, which aids in supervisory indoctrination, provides instruction in leadership. In 1949 this was included as a part of the curriculum of all naval enlisted class A and B schools and is an improved complement to the technical training which is administered.⁸ The course outline was based on a leadership publication which was distributed widely to all fleet units. At the time of its distribution, the recommendation was made by the Bureau of Personnel that similar courses should be administered by the local units as a means of providing wider leadership training in the Navy.

ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS FOR NAVY SCHOOLS

Opportunity for attendance at Navy schools is not available to every enlisted man; however, the man with normal intelligence and a desire for the training may qualify.

⁸ "General Outline In Leadership Used in Class A and B Schools," U.S. Naval Training Bulletin, February, 1949, pp. 11-17.

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Article D-2304 of the Bureau of Personnel Manual states the requirements:

Aptitude for the school, course, and type of Navy duty for which such courses prepare him based on physical characteristics, scores on Navy tests, civilian occupation, previous training, experience, hobbies, and interests.

BUREAU OF PERSONNEL'S RELATIONSHIP TO LOCAL TRAINING

The organizational chart (Appendix III) and the above discussion reveal that the Bureau of Personnel is not directly responsible for how local training is conducted or what training is accomplished. Its direct responsibility is limited, in regard to enlisted training, to the formal schools designated as fleet and service schools. In many ways the Bureau does influence local training indirectly. First, the students who do attend the formal schools are transferred to the fleet units, and their capabilities are utilized by the local commands. Any new techniques and knowledge which are learned are shared with others. Secondly, the Training Publications Section disseminates Navy training courses, correspondence courses, the U.S. Naval Training Bulletin, and other publications to fleet units. These serve as helpful guides to the local units in establishing their training programs; and further, they provide current information on facilities which can be used by commands to upgrade the efficiency of their personnel. Finally, the Training

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Aids and Distribution sections render valuable service to local training by providing available educational and training materials. Films, training publications, texts, special devices, and many more materials are thus available to local units upon request.

The Shipboard Training Manual should be mentioned as an excellent example of Bureau of Personnel literature which was designed to aid local training.⁹ The introduction states specifically that the purpose of the manual is to suggest methods for administration of a training program for individuals. It recognizes that training needs vary among units and therefore is confined to general recommendations concerning administration of a program, techniques of instruction, and training hints. The problem of applying these general proposals into specific situations is a responsibility of the local command. To do this most effectively, it is recommended that a training board be established to diagnose the training needs within a unit and to effect a suitable program to meet these needs. Thus, the initiative of the board and the availability of time appear as the only limitations to the scope and intensity of local training. Part I of the manual provides helpful directions for the administration of a training program and stresses

⁹ Bureau of Naval Personnel, Shipboard Training Manual, op. cit.

the importance of planning, organizing, executing, controlling, and coordinating any training. A chapter for each of the above phases of administration is concerned with instructions and examples for their accomplishment. Part two offers suggestions relating to techniques of instruction and examines the four factors involved in any training situation, namely, the instructor, the trainee, the subject matter, and the method of instruction. Part three offers general training hints which will aid the instructor in many training situations. The Shipboard Training Manual has served as a useful reference for the solution of local training problems, and most units have used parts of its content when applicable to their needs. It is again emphasized that the information is offered as a suggestion and in no way is the connotation of a directive or order implied.

TRAINING RECOMMENDATIONS FROM FLEET UNITS

It has been explained that individual units receive recommendations for improving their training procedures from the Bureau of Personnel training manuals and publications. These units can, in turn, offer any innovations which they have found successful to the bureau, and if of interest to other Navy units, the information is disseminated via current issues of training bulletins. In this manner, commands are informed of the procedures which others

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are using to solve their training problems. For any proposal such as the one resulting from this study to reach the local units, it would be submitted to the Bureau of Personnel, be approved, and disseminated in training bulletins or other periodicals.

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CHAPTER IV

THE NATURE OF SUPERVISION

SUPERVISOR - BORN OR MADE?

Can training improve supervision? Is supervision art or science? These and other practical questions which arise in any consideration of a training program suggest a brief summary of the views of research workers and men responsible for such programs. Fisher offers examples of this diversity of opinion by quoting the expressed views of Spengler on the one hand and that of Krech and Crutchfield on the other.¹

Spengler states:

As in every process there is a technique of direction and a technique of execution, so equally self-evidently, there are men whose nature is to command men whose nature is to obey....Governing, deciding, guiding, commanding is an art, a difficult technique, and like any other it presupposes an innate talent.²

Krech and Crutchfield, on the other hand, state:

Every individual may, given the proper group and the proper situation, come to serve as a leader....It is being more widely appreciated, at least by those who deal directly with the problem of leadership in government, in business, in education, and in all sorts of organizational activity, that the success of a person in a leadership capacity depends less

¹ Fisher, op. cit., p. 9.

² Oswald Spengler, Man and Techniques, New York, 1932, pp. 62-64.

THE THEORY OF CONSTITUTION

THEORY OF CONSTITUTION

The theory of constitution is a branch of political science which deals with the structure and functioning of the state. It is a study of the distribution of powers among the different organs of the state and the manner in which they exercise their powers. The theory of constitution is a branch of political science which deals with the structure and functioning of the state. It is a study of the distribution of powers among the different organs of the state and the manner in which they exercise their powers. The theory of constitution is a branch of political science which deals with the structure and functioning of the state. It is a study of the distribution of powers among the different organs of the state and the manner in which they exercise their powers.

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upon inherent features of his personality than upon the skills and attitudes that he possesses and the kind of group atmosphere in which he functions.³

A part of this diversity of opinion may be bridged by definition of supervision; as applied, it includes both mechanical and human aspects. Mosher and others indicate that there are specific techniques and skills in the more mechanical aspects of supervision which can be taught.⁴ They indicate some of these as work process improvement, flow charting, job analysis, layout, and work planning. Since Navy training at the local level, for the most part does not emphasize these functions, it appears that the Navy would benefit at least in this respect, from training.

However, the present trend supported by many authorities indicates that human relations should be given the greatest emphasis in supervisory training, because they constitute the major method of getting work done. Davis has referred to this by stating that the foreman's job is essentially one of executive leadership, requiring the proper performance of planning, organizing, and controlling group activities.⁵ It is in this major area of training for super-

³ David Krech and Richard S. Crutchfield, Theories and Problems of Social Psychology, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1948, pp. 436-438-431.

⁴ William E. Mosher and others, Public Personnel Administration, Harper and Brothers Publishers, New York, 1950, p. 419.

⁵ Ralph C. Davis, Industrial Organization and Management, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1940, p. 562.

vision, the leadership area, that the greatest divergence of opinion exists. This study is not a comprehensive coverage of leadership or of supervisory leadership, but a review of some of the more recent findings and opinions is of importance in a discussion of supervisory training.

LEADERSHIP

Studies concerned with leadership and leadership development are comparatively new. Since the most vivid examples of the functioning of leadership are found in crises such as wars, the majority of the early studies of leadership were based on the study of great military leaders, such as Napoleon or Nelson. Later it was realized that leadership was a potent force in more peaceful and less glamorized activities of every day life. The growth and expansion of industrial organizations and military forces, precipitated by two world wars, revealed the great shortage of leaders in both of these fields; hence, research studies into leadership were implemented during World War I and intensified during and after World War II.

A summary of the literature up to 1933 grouped the explanations of leadership under three headings: (1) leadership as myth and fiction; (2) leadership as a composite of traits in the individual; and (3) leadership as the result of interstimulation between the group and

the leader.⁶ This same summary divides the theories of leadership into two categories, heredity and environment. It concludes with the statement that the more recent studies of this period do not support the common belief that leaders are born and not made:

Inherited traits must be supplemented by environmental factors which provide for their proper development. As one reads the biographies of outstanding leaders in any field he is impressed with the fact that these individuals had training for the activities in which they excel. This training may have been direct and intentional and again it may have been a more or less incidental part of their experiences. In every field the demand is becoming more insistent for leaders whose training has been definitely planned and coordinated.⁷

More recent leadership research has largely discarded the first two categories under the 1935 explanations of leadership, and is generally less optimistic about the feasibility of training for it.

Leadership as a myth and fiction has probably been abandoned, partly because research workers do not wish to assume a defeatist attitude since leaders are in such demand, but mostly because evidence of leadership is indicated by most humans in some form or degree.

The leadership characteristics hypothesis has been thoroughly explored by students of the subject through many

⁶ Henry L. Smith and Levi M. Krueger, A Brief Summary of Literature on Leadership, Bureau of Cooperative Research, Indiana University, 1935, p. 9.

⁷ Ibid., p. 68.

approaches to the problem. The "Leadership in a Democracy" study at Ohio State University, identified eight of these as follows:

1. Observation of behavior in group situations.
2. Choice of associates.
3. Nomination of qualified observers.
4. Selection of persons occupying positions of leadership.
5. Analysis of biographical and case history data.
6. The listing of traits considered to be essential.
7. Supplementary aspects, including testing, questionnaires, and rating scales.
8. Age groups.⁸

The abundance and variety of the characteristics listed from hundreds of separate studies, are confusing. Even the most commonly listed characteristics do not represent a consensus of opinion, because very few of them were listed by more than ten per cent of the sources cited, which included over one hundred military and civilian references.⁹

Hemphill states that the continued prevalence of the trait-listing approach has resulted in a mass of data on the

⁸ Ralph M. Stogdill, "Personal Factors Associated With Leadership: A Survey of the Literature," Journal of Psychology, XXV, January, 1946, pp. 2-4.

⁹ Ibid., p. 7.

personal qualities of leaders in many "highly specific but unsystematically related situations."¹⁰ A review of the literature by Stogdill on the personal factors in leadership and including only those which were listed in at least fifteen of the 124 sources, grouped them under five general headings: capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, and status. Stogdill's major conclusion, which was similarly supported by Jenkins in a review of studies of leadership in military and industrial settings,¹¹ was that "qualities, characteristics, and skills required in a leader are determined to a large extent by the demands of the situation in which he is to function as a leader."¹² This conclusion has been accepted by most authorities; hence, the trait approach, in and of itself, has been largely abandoned.

More recent approaches to leadership have stressed the importance of the situation. This trend supports Davis' view of every leadership problem as one having three interacting primary factors -- the leader, the people led, and the particular situation.¹³ The situational ap-

¹⁰ John K. Memphill, Situational Factors in Leadership, Bureau of Educational Research Monograph No. 32, Ohio State University, 1949, p. 6.

¹¹ W. O. Jenkins, "A Review of Leadership Studies With Particular Reference to Military Problems," Psychological Bulletin, 44, January, 1947, pp. 54-79.

¹² Stogdill, op. cit., p. 63.

¹³ Davis, op. cit., p. 31.

personal belief of students in their "study" should be
 unapologetically stated. As a result of the
 literature it should be the student's duty to
 add and include only what is of value in his
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 of knowledge in his library and historical sources.¹² The
 that "knowledge" should be included and not the
 a better way to include is a large volume of the
 of the literature of the 19th century as a whole.¹³
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proach to leadership seems to provide a more sound basis for devising practical programs for the selection and training of those who are to direct group activities. The general theory of this method is that knowledge of the relation of leadership to dimensions of the group will give a better definition of leadership by revealing new functions required of individuals in a leadership role. The main difficulty in this approach lies in specifying how factors in the situation create demands on the leader's behavior.¹⁴

Similar conclusions were offered by Matthews in a later review of the literature on situational aspects of leadership. He stresses "structuring of group behavior" as an important aspect of the definition of leadership, and mentions that the lack of adequate criteria has been the chief weakness in validating leadership measures.¹⁵

A research project, whose mission is the development of valid situational tests for the Army Leaders Course, has proposed the critical incident technique as a possibility.¹⁶ Again, the difficulty is voiced that a valid definition of critical leadership behavior is lacking. Once defined, situations could be devised which would in-

¹⁴ Hemphill, op. cit., p. 102.

¹⁵ J. Matthews, Research on the Development of Valid Situational Tests on Leadership, Part I - Survey of the Literature, American Institute for Research, Pittsburgh, 1950, pp. 65-66.

¹⁶ Ibid., p. 67.

clude specific incidents in which leadership action was especially effective or ineffective. With the incidents classified and available, the hypothesis considers that potential leaders could be trained to solve intelligently problems that might arise in similar future incidents. Leadership would supposedly develop because the man would acquire traits and characteristics that would assist him in handling each situation.

In conclusion, research workers generally avoid defining leadership and estimate ten or more years before a valid definition will be forthcoming. The majority, however, agree that the leader, the people led, and the particular situation are vital elements to be considered. The following expressed opinion of Sandford is similarly held by other research authorities. Although admitting that knowledge about leadership is insufficient to do much in the way of selection and training, "our confusions are more enlightened than they were twenty or even ten years ago."¹⁷

LEADERSHIP TRAINING - MILITARY AND INDUSTRIAL

The military and industrial organizations have sought mostly the "practical" way in the accomplishment of their

¹⁷ American Psychological Association, "Military Leadership," by F. H. Sandford, Armed Forces Familiarization Course in Military Psychology, A Course of 14 Lectures given by the American Psychological Association, Inc., Washington, 1949, pp. XII-20.

missions. Their practical thinking, in advance of any valid "theoretical" support, has influenced their attempts at training for leadership. Their reasoning has been similar to that expressed by Tead in offering his practical method of developing the art of leadership:

Finally, I do not apologize for offering this study without buttressing it at every turn by support from controlled scientific experiments. I merely explain that such experiments have thus far been lamentable few; and if a book were to wait upon such formal scientific corroboration, none would appear, perhaps, for another decade. In such a field of observable human behavior as that of personal leadership, we are not, however, without data which offer evidence that may fairly be said to allow a careful study to escape the stigma of armchair theorizing.¹⁸

The view long held by the Navy was expressed by the Chief of Naval Personnel in 1949:

The means, the methods, and meanings -- or let us say, the skills, the mechanics, and the philosophy -- are elements fundamental to any art or profession. The practitioner must acquire the skill, become well versed in the mechanics (or techniques) and have some sort of philosophic aim, whether he engages in law, medicine, music, politics or the art of leadership. Some military leaders, even as some musicians, may be born artists; we acknowledge the phenomenon of genius. But the great majority are made. Self-made or otherwise trained, they acquired the necessary know-how the hard way through study, practice, and experience. The point being that we can learn to lead.¹⁹

¹⁸ Ordway Tead, The Art of Leadership, McGraw-Hill New York, 1935, preface, p. viii.

¹⁹ Sprague, op. cit., introduction.

Abstract. This section is devoted to the study of the
 "universal" property of the fundamental group of a
 2D surface. The main result is that the fundamental group of a
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Early informal methods stressed reading about, and imitation of, leaders or people occupying positions of authority. In industry and the military, supervisors at the foreman and Chief Petty Officer level were given little or no formal training. They were "leaders" primarily by virtue of position, with its attendant authority, and by longevity, with its accompanying status.

Pioneer efforts of formal training for leadership at the supervisory level consisted of lectures and discussions on qualities needed. Such training suggested that "imitation of your superiors, a study of a book on leadership, and everyday practice" will make you a leader. This method is not entirely extinct, although fortunately, it has been improved by utilization of better teaching methods.

The contents of later courses stressed the importance of a knowledge of human nature, principles of leadership, and attitudes needed in dealing with people. This "how" approach to leadership was illustrated effectively by problem solving, case studies, and later, by role-playing.

In 1948 the Bureau of Naval Personnel distributed a booklet entitled "The Petty Officer - A Leader" to all units, recommending its use as a basis for a course in leadership for petty officers. Comments requested from flag officers on its reception in the fleet revealed a prevalent feeling that leadership training for petty offi-

cers was not being carried on in the fleet.²⁰ The author's opinion supports one comment that enlisted men are recommended for promotion with little or no thought being given to their leadership abilities. It seems ironical that the abundance of talk and literature stresses that the number one job of a petty officer is to be a leader, yet the formal training in this respect is badly neglected. General concurrence with these thoughts that leadership training within local commands was insufficient, led the Bureau of Personnel to suggest that such training should be a continuing, all hands evolution in the future.²¹

The success of such training will depend less on the booklet, and more on the instructional methods selected and used by the local commands, therefore, an example of the present training in human relations in industry might suggest a methodology.

Hoslett describes a training course based on experimental psychological evidence that trainees must participate in their own instruction in some ego-involving way before substantial, permanent learning occurs.²² The conference method is advocated, wherein participation by

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"Leadership Program," U.S. Naval Training Bulletin, October, 1948, pp. 17-20.

²¹ Ibid., p. 20.

²² Schuyler D. Hoslett, "Training In Human Relations," reprinted from Personnel, Vol. 23, No. 2, American Management Association, New York, 15 pp.

members greatly determines the subject matter, level of discussion, and learning speed. The four steps of the conference include a group discussion of the nature of the problem, the causes of the problem, the right and wrong methods of handling it, and an analysis of ways to prevent the problem in the future. The conclusion is emphasized that the solution should be one formulated through the contributions of all group members and not the "proper" decision which the instructor possesses.

The first objective of Hoslett's training is a genuine appreciation, understanding, and acceptance by the supervisors of the basic human needs of the workers on the job, and an understanding of the structure, functions, and usefulness of groups. The second, accomplished through role-playing, is acquisition of an approach which uses the concepts mentioned above without over-conscious effort.²³

²³Ibid., pp. 8-9.

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CHAPTER V

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING TECHNIQUES

EVALUATION OF SUPERVISORY TRAINING

Before describing the training methods used currently in industry, it should be noted that evaluation of supervisory training based on concrete, factual evidence of improvement has been noticeably lacking. The problem of determining the amount of change in supervisory behavior has not as yet been solved by direct measurement; its determination exists as a challenge to the future. Various indirect methods have been attempted, but they are subject to other uncontrollable factors which very likely alter their validities.

The majority of evaluations have been based on questionnaires, voluntary letters received from trainees, and acclaims made by company executives; most of them attest to the worth of such programs by citing heightened morale, reduction in absenteeism and turnover, and other factors as being directly attributed to training.¹ These stated opinions are obviously subject to personal bias and are therefore considered to be of questionable value by many.

¹ Loken and Strong, op. cit., p. 182.

One questionnaire, entitled "How Supervise?", was devised to evaluate the results of supervisory training programs.² Two equated forms, one administered prior and one after the course, were used to measure the trainee's supervisory ability on the basis of answers to questions covering important aspects of supervisory ability. The author reported that two companies using this method during the experiment found significant gains, especially among noticeably poor supervisors.

An appraisal of "How Supervise?" points to the fact that the test is still not an objective measurement of supervisory performance; it is a measure of the variation in the supervisor's ability to arrive at the same answers as the experts, but "this is a far cry from proving that this test measures actual supervisory quality or ability as shown on the factory floor."³

Concrete evidence has been cited from studies where controlled observations were made before and after training. One source computed the average increase in general efficiency was 22.3% in a sample group of 1200 supervisors; worker production averaged an increase of 16.7%; turnover rates

² Quentin W. File, "The Management of Supervisory Quality in Industry," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1945, 29, pp. 323-337.

³ "Appraisal of Mr. File's Study," Personnel Journal, 1946, 24, pp. 252-253.

were reduced an average of 26%.⁴ Other comparisons have been made where statistical data are available on such items as frequency and severity of accidents, absenteeism, number of suggestions, grievances, production data, and cost data. A word of caution in the use of such results was given by Fisher:

In using such standards for measuring performance, management must make allowances for changing conditions within the organization. Other forces and conditions are always at work, and some of them may be the major factors in bringing about improvements or in offsetting gains which might otherwise have occurred.⁵

Although not precluding the need for continued search for more objective evaluation, circumstantial evidence of the benefits derived from supervisory training is considered sufficient to warrant its use. To deny the fact that training which is based on sound teaching techniques will not improve skills, knowledges, and attitudes, is "to say that education and training as developed over the years in educational institutions and business organizations have been a waste of time and human energy."⁶ It is with a belief in sound teaching that the following methods are offered as a proposal for those contemplating the use of supervisory

⁴ Loken and Strong, op. cit., pp. 182-183.

⁵ Fisher, op. cit., p. 29.

⁶ Ibid., p. 27.

training in the Navy. No "canned" approach or "one best way" are advocated; rather are the most commonly used and potentially effective methods listed for consideration in tailoring a course to help meet a local need.

LECTURE METHOD

The lecture is one of the oldest and most widely used classroom teaching methods, and its uses and abuses have been as frequent in foreman training as they have been in our educational institutions. The features of the lecture are generally known because of its frequent use. In brief, it is a verbal presentation of information in which one or only a very few of those present aid in the dissemination of the material.⁷ The pure lecture is almost unanimously discouraged as a method for supervisory training; therefore, it has often been supplemented by pictures, charts, or other visual aids. Even this combination is not considered effective for supervisory training, especially since training is considered to be a continuing activity. Some of the reasons for this include a lack of interest factor, excessive domination by the lecturer, no meaningful association of ideas to the experience of the trainee, and many more.

In criticism of the frequent use of the lecture, the point is often made that telling is not teaching, and

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Ghiselli and Brown, op. cit., p. 355.

listening is not learning.⁸ Whereas this might also be applied to other teaching methods, it is a major criticism of the lecture as a training method because its past usage has largely neglected group participation. The conference, case study, and role-playing methods are more acceptable since they encourage more individual contribution and involve more of the trainee's senses in the learning process.

The use of the extended lecture is not advisable for supervisory training; but, when used for short periods of time, it has been advocated as a good method for presenting new information to large groups in a relatively brief time. Its effective use in this instance, however, requires association of ideas and experiences through verbal means; and this has often been difficult in foremen classes. The lecture has also served a useful purpose when little learning is involved, such as when points of information are being disseminated.⁹

An occasional lecture by a famous person, either within the organization or outside, has stimulated interest in the subject and gained partial acceptance; but it is doubtful that the long-run effect of such speeches includes changed supervisory behavior. Frequent lectures by men

⁸ U.S. Navy, Basic Teaching Principles, (Revised 1949) prepared by the Chief of Naval Air Technical Training, p. 56.

⁹ Ghiselli and Brown, op. cit., p. 355.

of authority give rise to the status barrier, and therefore, are considered to produce negative training results.

In combination with other methods, the lecture seems to be more useful; in fact, modern industrial training has increasingly recognized this. Instead of constituting the basis of the training program, the lecture has assumed a supporting role.

CONFERENCE METHOD

Far from new, the conference technique has received increasing attention in recent years and has replaced almost completely the straight lecture method for training the lower executive and the foremanship levels. While it was formerly used by only a few training specialists, today it has become a regularly used tool for line management in many companies.¹⁰ Pfiffner states that the conference should be the basis for all human relations training today.¹¹ Since this is the trend in the content of programs, it appears that the importance of conferences as a base for all supervisor training will become increasingly recognized.

The term "conference" has been subject to wide interpretations and variations; and, as one authority concludes,

¹⁰ National Industrial Conference Board Report No. 124, op. cit., p. 19.

¹¹ Pfiffner, op. cit., p. 13.

it is a "broken-winded and pestiferous term."¹² Of the many synonyms for the term, "discussion" or "meeting" are probably most frequently heard. Such modifiers as "pure," "controlled," "guided," "informal," "determinate," and others are inserted to clarify an author's interpretation or variation; however, their inclusion often adds complexity to the issue and leaves the problem of definition of the term unsolved. The use of the term in this study will doubtless reflect parts of many of the above mentioned variations.

One definition of "conference method" which is accepted by many foreman training programs, is "a group training method in which problem situations of common interest are discussed in an effort to formulate a solution through the contributions of all of the group."¹³ The uses of the method have been widely mentioned; one report has found that it is effectively used:

1. When an emergency arises and there is not enough time to wait for a scientific solution. It is a trouble-shooting device.
2. When a problem needs to be defined or an issue clarified.
3. When you seek to improve cooperation in an organization.

¹² Beckman, R.O., How To Train Supervisors, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1940, p. 13.

¹³ Gerald G. Chappell, Training of Supervisors, Bulletin No. 10, Industrial Relations Section, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, 1944, p. 26.

4. When you need to work out clear understandings of responsibilities.
5. When you need to interpret policies and standards of conduct.
6. When you wish to show a need for further training.
7. When individuals in a group possess knowledge pertaining to the problem, and wish to pool the experiences and knowledge of the group for discussion and evaluation.¹⁴

From the foregoing, it appears that a basic ingredient for conference success is group participation on a subject which comes within the realm of experience and knowledge of the conferees. As an aid in improving supervision, the conference would seem to possess great possibilities for Chief Petty Officers as well as foremen, if membership were restricted to these persons of equal responsibility, authority, and rank.

A common core of procedure for the conference seems to coincide with that intended by the father of the conference method, Charles H. Allen. This procedure was divided into six steps by Beckman:

1. Assembling of experience from the group.
2. Selection of such experience data or facts as function directly on the problem.
3. Evaluation of pertinent data or experience.

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U.S. Office of Education, "Report on the First National Training Conference for Distributive Education," 1939, p. 9.

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4. Conclusion or decision as to the best procedure.
5. Planning to make the decision effective.
6. Carrying out the plan.¹⁵

Steps 5 and 6 are often not included in many conferences; their inclusion would seem to depend on the need for action on the problem discussed.

Utterback resolves any problem under conference consideration into two phases which he calls, (1) the exploration of the issue, and (2) the resolution of conflicts of opinion.¹⁶ The exploratory phase consists of subdividing the issue, obtaining the opinions of the members on this, and establishing points of agreement and disagreement. The resolution of conflicts of opinion includes clarification of the reason for conflicts of opinion, reduction of the area of disagreement, and finally a synthesis of conflicting views.

Whereas the good conference is informal, it is not formless.¹⁷ It is not designed for a pooling of ignorance, which has unfortunately too often been the case. The gener-

¹⁵ Beckman, op. cit., p. 14.

¹⁶ William E. Utterback, Decision Through Discussion, A manual for Group Leaders, Published by the Dept. of Speech, Ohio State University, copyright New York Times, 1948, preface.

¹⁷ Ibid., p. 8.

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al consensus of opinion indicates that this pitfall is avoided by the inclusion of at least two ingredients; first, a good conference leader who leads by subduing his ego, and secondly, active participation by each individual member of the group in the solution of the problem. In the final analysis, the total value derived from the conference is equal to the sum of the contributions made by the individuals.

Utterback has described the role of the leader as one of moderator, guide, and spokesman for the group. The five functions which he performs include regulating, focusing, guiding, interpreting and pointing up the discussion.¹⁸ The assignment of these functions to the leader is much more simple than their execution, but it is commonly held that anyone who will prepare himself adequately and take every opportunity to practice will soon develop the necessary skill.¹⁹ His position is one of recognized importance, and the problem of his selection introduces many variations and implications. With much of training considered as a line function, companies have recognized a need for training their line management to be good conference leaders. This same function of training subordinates is considered a vital responsibility of the Chief Petty Officer; hence,

¹⁸ Ibid., pp. 11-19.

¹⁹ Ibid., p. 35.

in gaining effectiveness in any group training which he undertakes, he too, may well need the skill to perform as a conference leader.

The general conclusion reached from its wide use indicates that the advantages of the conference method far outweigh the disadvantages. Beckman points to its prime advantage as being a "chocolate coated educational device."²⁰ "School," "class," "home-work," and other terms pose a mental block to most supervisors and Chief Petty Officers. The generally low educational level of these two groups, as previously noted, is given as a reason for their apprehension of any training which is labelled as education. Therefore, it is mostly the informality of the conference which appeals to these practical people and softens the stigma often associated with having to leave the shop to attend classes.

Two frequently mentioned advantages, both from the standpoint of interest aroused and from learning acquired, are the emphasis and opportunity given for participation. Hoslett cites several sources of evidence that "meaningful participation is a key to efficient learning in any field of activity."²¹ The formalism of lecture and teacher-dominated methods are roadblocks to the participation de-

²⁰ Beckman, op. cit., p. 15.

²¹ Hoslett, op. cit., p. 4.

1. The first step is to identify the problem or goal. This involves understanding the current situation, identifying the problem, and setting a clear goal. For example, if the goal is to increase sales, the first step would be to identify the current sales level and the factors that are affecting it.

sired; hence, removal of these under the conference system is considered an advantage in opening up the channels for individual contribution.

The friendly "give and take" at the conference table develops fellowship and morale, both of which aid in the satisfaction of a basic human need -- a sense of belonging. This would be of especial advantage in the Navy situation, since Chief Petty Officers have separate living quarters, clubs, and mess facilities, and spend a great percentage of their off duty time together. It is quite probable that conferences would be "re-hashed" and new problems of mutual interest discovered at the table during meals and in the bunkroom after taps.

Supervisory training is usually designed to inculcate new, and often to change old, attitudes through observance of commonly accepted principles of operation. The conference method itself is based on sound psychological principles which state that, "policies and regulations are more acceptable to people who have participated in their formulation, partly because they understand them, partly because they are aware of the events and conditions which make them necessary, and partly because they have been consulted and have contributed to their formulation."²²

Once again, the advantage mentioned seems to have great significance for the Navy supervisor. Frequently the Chief Petty Officer needs "overtime" workers to repair an aircraft, fix a machine, or accomplish other tasks, outside of regular working hours. The willingness of the crew is often dependent on the recognized need for completion of the task at that time, and this need is best fulfilled if the Chief has the answer at hand. This is only one example of many which might be cited, where the supervisor's task may be lightened and his effectiveness in controlling the working crews be increased. It is greatly dependent on the competence of the supervisor in interpreting and conveying to his subordinates, acceptable reasons for such tasks or assignments. In summary, the conference method, with its psychological advantages, makes it more probable that the Chief Petty Officers will themselves accept the policies and regulations, and that because of them, the subordinates will also.

Closely allied with the previous advantage is that of creating opportunity for a two-way flow of communication. There are many methods of communication in an organization, but the conference, with its informal atmosphere, seems to be highly advantageous in letting supervisors "in on the word." Free flowing two-way communication is considered vital, but increasingly difficult, in large organizations

of today, and the important position of the supervisor in this key function is recognized more frequently.²³

Another advantage frequently cited is that "the level of discussion is closely matched to the members' learning speed, since they do most of the talking."²⁴ This implies once again the presence of informality, participation, and common interest, which are considered vital in the learning process.

Not the least of the benefits to be considered is the development of teamwork. Fisher states, "Conferences foster teamwork, and teamwork is a prerequisite of successful administration in an age of specialization and large-scale operation."²⁵ Although full cooperative effort directed towards a common goal is the desire of any organization, it appears as a more important need in the armed services because their mission affects the nation. Team activity is stressed through competition among squadrons, ships, and stations as a means of upgrading the efficiency and effectiveness of the Navy. The fostering of teamwork through conferences at the command level should aid the Chief Petty Officer in doing a better job of supervision in his divisional work, since he will have a clearer view of the organizational objectives as related to his divisional

²³ Pfiffner, op. cit., pp. 149-153.

²⁴ Hoslett, op. cit., p. 5.

²⁵ Fisher, op. cit., p. 23.

of today, and the important position of the supervisor in this key function is recognized more frequently.²³

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²³ Pfiffner, op. cit., pp. 149-153.

²⁴ Hoslett, op. cit., p. 5.

²⁵ Fisher, op. cit., p. 23.

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responsibilities.

Despite the many good features of the conference, it is, however, not without its disadvantages as a training method. Its potential benefits are often never realized in many training programs; and, of the many reasons for this failure which might be listed, the majority seem to be classified as operational shortcomings. As previously mentioned, the successful conference is a group process; hence, failure on the part of individuals to contribute something worthwhile to the discussion will result in negligible accomplishment. Meaningless contributions of high sounding words and idealistic phrases, side debates between individuals on irrelevant or minor points, and excessive domination of the "floor" by the leader or individual members, are common occurrences in conferences. The change from the autocratic lecture method to the democratic group process has tended to make the participants go "overboard" in their efforts to contribute, thus often clouding the issues and stifling progress towards the accomplishment of training objectives. In her discussion of the process of collective thinking, Coyle emphasizes the various roles assumed by individuals and realistically describes how these lead to objectionable results in many conferences:

Personal habits of participation further affect the process as it continues. The constant talkers, the orators, the silent

responsibilities.

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members, all serve to determine the course of discussion. The speed of response is a further factor. Individuals react some slowly, some promptly to the flow of suggestion. In the course of a discussion there will often occur belated responses to ideas farther upstream which have just come through to articulation. Individuals with stock panaceas can be counted on to trot out their hobbies, no matter how remote they may seem from the subject in hand. Many discussions will contain also participants with diffuse minds who contribute large masses of unrelated and unorganized material.²⁶

Similar results as described above have been experienced in foreman training; and to combat these, many companies have structured their conferences by using group leaders who follow discussion outlines as guides. One topic is usually covered during one or more meetings as a means of overcoming preoccupation with any one subject. The purpose of such arrangement is to combine the desirable features of direction and guidance with those of informality and participation. It is for these reasons that Beckman offers the directed discussion technique to "transform the 'blarney' and 'word-guessing games' which characterize so many supervisory training meetings into media for genuine constructive thinking."²⁷ However, the degree of

²⁶ Grace L. Coyle, "Social Process in Organized Groups", New York, Richard D. Smith, 1930, pp. 187-188.

²⁷ Beckman, op. cit., p. 9.

acceptance under these conditions depends greatly on the extent of leader domination, and the flexibility of course content in meeting the felt needs of the supervisors as they see them. In conclusion, the difficulty, and consequently a disadvantage of the conference, is the problem of determining what material is to be included, how it is selected, and finally, how it is disseminated. The task of balancing these factors is considered momentous, and past failures in this respect have, therefore, caused disadvantages to be charged against the conference.

Criticisms other than operational which are made against this method include its slowness as a training device, and consequently, its costliness.²⁸ The time and cost elements appear as more important considerations in industrial training, but they can not be overlooked when considering the Navy situation. The selection of times and places of meetings introduces disadvantages, which, of course, might be levelled against other training methods as well as the conference. However, the change from the pressure of the shop to the informality of the conference is often difficult during the day, whereas a lecture or movie might be taken "in stride." Again, the Navy, with training constituting the major portion of its mission, possesses advantages over the production minded industrial

28Ghiselli and Brown, op. cit., p. 356.

organization.

In summary, the conference has possibilities for greater Navy use, but it is unlikely that any one conference method would be sufficient for Navy-wide purposes. As in industry, the selection should be made upon consideration of the foregoing factors and others which are associated with the local conditions.

ROLE-PLAYING

Role-playing, which is an outgrowth of the psychodrama or socio-drama, is a recent method for training foremen. The advocates of this method have indicated its possibilities in many training situations, but foremanship training has adopted it primarily for human relations training.

The central idea of role-playing is the assignment of various members of the training group to roles, and the acting out of problem situations. The problem is usually one suggested by the group or the leader during the course of a training discussion, thus indicating the spontaneous and unrehearsed acting that is encouraged. Variations in procedure exist, some of which are mentioned by Bavelas as:

1. Strict definition of the problem situation and the role to be played, thus constituting a demonstration.

2. Loose definition of the problem so that "play" is highly spontaneous and the outcome almost unpredictable.
3. Consideration of single or multiple incidents.
4. Previous instruction for some roles as to how to react if certain events occur, or instruction limited to being told to react 'naturally.'²⁹

The selection of which role-playing procedure to use, like all training, is considered dependent on the individual diagnosis of the organization in which training is to be conducted. One source cites that, after several years of trial and error in the use of role-playing for teaching specific social skills, it found a need for, "(1) the use of carefully planned 'stereotype' situations as basic training material, and (2) rather close controls of all roles being played, with the exception of the role primarily under consideration -- that one being left entirely free to be played as the individual sees fit."³⁰

A typical role-playing session would consist of the following steps:

1. Choosing the problem.
2. Agreeing on the details of the case.
3. Defining the roles.

²⁹ Alex Havelas, "Role Playing and Management Training," Sociatry, June, 1947, Vol. 1, pp. 183-184.

³⁰ Ibid., p. 187.

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4. Defining the goal of the people not acting -- clarifying the place of the observers.
5. The role-playing itself.
6. The discussion following the role-playing.³¹

The above steps indicate that role-playing is a group action and not limited to the actors. Group participation is encouraged and provided, as was the case in the conference method. However, role-playing is considered to be of more therapeutic value, since the participation involves concrete action rather than verbal contributions. Many programs have found the use of sound recording as an indispensable tool during its sessions. Since recording and playing back speeches is a procedure used in public speaking training, it has similar advantages for the supervisors in encouraging self-development and improving his ability to speak effectively.³²

The reasons given by Tyler for using role-playing in human relations training at the American Type Founders Company are representative of those which were instrumental in its adoption by other companies. This company noted that a gap existed between theory and practice in the human

³¹ A.A. Liveright, "Role-Playing in Leadership Training," Personnel Journal, April, 1951, Vol. 29, p. 413.

³² Michael J. Jucius, Personnel Management, Revised edition, Richard D. Irwin Inc., Chicago, 1951, p. 287.

6. Defining the role of the people and setting --
 explicitly the place of the government.

7. The role-playing itself.

8. The discussion following the role-playing.

The above three phases of role-playing is a group action
 and not limited to the subject. Group participation is en-
 couraged and provided, as was the case in the conference
 method. However, role-playing is considered to be of more
 practical value, since the participants involved receive
 actual practice with various organizations. Many programs
 have found the use of drama resulting in an indispensable
 tool during the learning. These programs are being used
 wherever it is possible to use in public relations training.
 It has similar advantages for the classroom in that it
 is self-involvement and improves the ability to speak.

attending.

The reasons given to explain the value of role-playing in
 human relations training is the fact that the participants
 develop the responsibility of those who are instrumental
 in the solution of their problems. This concept is
 that a role played between them and results in the same

11. A. A. Livermore: "Role-playing in Leadership Train-
 ing," Management Journal, 1951, Vol. 33, P. 313.
 12. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1951, P. 313.
 13. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1951, P. 313.

relations field. After a careful study, it was found that supervisors gave verbal approval to promoting greater human understanding through the use of principles and techniques, but that under the stress of the shop day, they experienced difficulty in relating these principles to actual problems. A second cause was the interference of inbred attitudes and old habits with their efforts to improve.³³ The theory on which role-playing was adopted was that, by making the situation as realistic as possible, the acceptance and practice of these principles would aid in combatting former bad habits in dealings with subordinates.

The advantages accorded this training method by its proponents are many. However, it is generally recognized that its relative newness in foreman training has precluded extensive evaluation; and therefore, its merits may be overestimated.

The most frequently mentioned advantage is that role-playing "shows how" rather than "tells how". Since the Navy training manuals stress learning by doing, this might have considerable application for Chief Petty Officer training. Bavelas mentions that, in terms of effecting on-the-job behavior changes, actual practise as given in role-playing sessions has several advantages over the pure dis-

³³ A. H. Tyler, "A Case Study of Role Playing," Personnel, Sept., 1948, 25, pp. 136-142.

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cussion and other methods.³⁴ The interest and participation are present, as in the conference, but an added feature is the "actions speak louder than words" theory. During replays, various points of view can be demonstrated, and their effectiveness evaluated by the group. Since there is usually no one best method for handling a human relations problem, these contributions by his peers gives the foreman a consensus of opinion view toward solution.

Another point emphasized is that role-playing makes a person sensitized to himself and sensitized to the effects of his actions on others.³⁵ The first point is illustrated by the fact that it has often happened that a person makes the same mistakes in role-playing that he unconsciously makes on the job; and immediately after the play, he points out his own errors. The second effect, becoming sensitized to the feelings of his subordinates, is made possible because other members of the group play the subordinate roles and are able to express the effects caused by his actions. This latter is not generally available in real life situations or in a conference, and is therefore considered of great aid to the supervisor who is trying to do a better job but who is unaware of the effect that his actions have on subordinates.

³⁴ Bavelas, op. cit., p. 185.

³⁵ Ibid., pp. 184-185.

Dramatization of a situation being discussed provides a good basis of common experience for the group. This has further significance to everyone, both as interest and participation factors, when all help in setting up the situation. Future references during any discussion would therefore have more meaning for the group members, maintain their interest, stimulate their participation, and supposedly aid in the learning process. Since role-playing is most often used with the conference method, it has especial value as a spontaneous device for putting an idea or discussion into practice. This immediate application of words into meaningful action is usually given preference to the "cold storage" theory, whenever possible.

Tyler's role-playing experiment revealed this as a possible means for knowing the good foreman from the bad. His company noted "a terrific drop in the performance of some persons, and on tracing it back, have learned that there seems to be a direct correlation between good performance in role-playing and good performance in the factory."³⁶ If this possibility were explored further and found valid, its use in selecting and training petty officers in the Navy is obvious.

It appears that, like the conference method, role-

playing has disadvantages which are in great part operational in nature. Several of these are listed by Liveright, who mentions that role-playing is more difficult to use effectively than other methods.³⁷ Unless effectively introduced, the group may resent the technique as childish. The casting of parts often is badly handled in that embarrassment is caused by including those who really did not want to take part. More responsibilities are placed on the leader than in the conference because he must be able to "do" as well as "tell how." Another source mentioned that the cases are often difficult to develop so as to exclude non-essentials and still match the needs of the groups and shop conditions.³⁸

In addition, unless carefully guarded against, many groups have placed major emphasis on acting rather than the problem involved. A final disadvantage, which is worthy of remembering, is that "a direct question or problem may be more effective and take less time."³⁹

These disadvantages suggest that role-playing can be too lengthy, less efficient, and ineffective, unless properly used; its proper use demands a skillful leader, even more so than the conference. Under suitable conditions, there

³⁷ Liveright, op. cit., p. 416.

³⁸ Tyler, op. cit., p. 138.

³⁹ Liveright, op. cit., p. 416.

appears possibility for wider use of role-playing in Navy training, especially in the direction of human relations training for Chief Petty Officers.

THE CASE METHOD

Supervisory training has practised the case method since World War I, but its recent use has been more widespread, especially as an aid in training supervisors to cope with human problems. The case method is defined as an educational method which develops the trainee's ability to recognize problems, discover and analyze pertinent facts, and make decisions that will apply best under certain sets of circumstances. An essential feature of the case method is a discussion of the various points involved in the problem and the approaches to its solution; therefore, foreman training has usually considered the case method as a supplement to the conference. As a means of making the training more realistic, interesting, and practical, the cases discussed are usually taken from actual experiences.⁴⁰

The case method, like the conference, has variations, most of which can be classified under the headings of "free" and "determinate." In the determinate method, the

⁴⁰ Russell J. Greenly, "The Case Method In Supervisory Training," Personnel Series No. 56, American Management Association, New York, 1942, p. 33.

opposed to the other side of the coin, it is not
 being, especially in the case of the
 British, the only way to go.

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leader attempts to guide the group toward a best solution based on his own opinion or group opinion. The free type assumes there is no best answer and places emphasis on stimulating the conferees to think in terms of broad areas of leadership, rather than forcing a set of principles or solution on the learner. The majority of foreman training has followed the former method, with the group opinion being considered as the "best" solution.⁴¹ The reason for this is that, since there is no answer book for the problems, it is believed that the supervisor will accept more readily any conclusion which he and his colleagues have established. A further assumption is that the commonly accepted principles will be repeated in many different problems, and that frequent use of them in discussions will gain acceptance by the supervisor. With little thought or reflection, he will apply these principles on the job.

The advocates of the case method point to the realistic aspect as being stimulating and practical. Since many of the unpleasant parts of a supervisor's job are his personnel problems, the case method aids in prevention and cure of these by teaching him to foresee, diagnose, and cure many which confront him.

Holding a different viewpoint are those who feel that

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Conference Board Report No. 124, op. cit., p. 25.

this method views the supervisor's job as a series of problems; consequently, the supervisor becomes too analytical about most phases of his work. Another opinion believes that every human problem is different and that general principles can not be applied effectively to specific problems.

In conclusion, it must be stated that companies do not rely on the case method alone; on the contrary, they use it in conjunction with other teaching methods. As a means of developing an analytic approach to problems and of verbally relating the problems to actual experience, the case method has much in its favor.

TRAINING AIDS

Most sources hesitate to consider training aids under the category of a teaching method; they prefer to emphasize their use as aids to other methods. Regardless of their classification, training aids are used widely in supervisory training and are therefore worthy of consideration.

Training aids have been divided into four types: synthetic training devices, visual training aids, audio-visual training aids, and auditory training aids.⁴² The two categories used most commonly in supervisory training

⁴² M. E. Callahan and E. C. Rose, "Use of Training Aids," Industrial Arts and Vocational Education, November 1946, p. 436.

1. The first step in the process of identifying a problem is to define the problem. This involves identifying the symptoms of the problem and determining the scope of the problem. Once the problem has been defined, the next step is to identify the causes of the problem. This involves identifying the factors that are contributing to the problem and determining the relationships between these factors. Once the causes of the problem have been identified, the next step is to develop a plan of action. This involves identifying the steps that need to be taken to solve the problem and determining the resources that will be needed to implement the plan. Once a plan of action has been developed, the final step is to implement the plan. This involves carrying out the steps that have been identified in the plan and monitoring the progress of the implementation.

1. The first step in the process of identifying a problem is to define the problem. This involves identifying the symptoms of the problem and determining the scope of the problem. Once the problem has been defined, the next step is to identify the causes of the problem. This involves identifying the factors that are contributing to the problem and determining the underlying causes. Once the causes have been identified, the next step is to develop a plan of action. This involves identifying the steps that need to be taken to solve the problem and determining the resources that will be needed to implement the plan. Finally, the last step in the process is to implement the plan and monitor the results. This involves putting the plan into action and tracking the progress of the solution. Once the problem has been solved, the final step is to evaluate the results and determine if the solution was effective. This involves comparing the results of the solution to the original problem and determining if the problem has been solved. If the problem has not been solved, the process may need to be repeated.

Two categories have not been included in the summary: (1) the
general category of "other" and (2) category "not stated."¹² The
category "not stated" consists of 1,000 cases, 1,000 of which were
excluded from the summary. The category "other" consists of 1,000
cases, 1,000 of which were excluded from the summary.

are visual and audio-visual, and they include posters, blackboards, strip film, silent films, and sound-motion pictures.

Training aids have contributed to the learning process in many ways. Among those noted are: adding interest to the training situation, helping to clarify verbal explanations, presenting the information in less time, focussing the attention of all the trainees on one item at the proper time, and appealing to more than one sense. There exists no stereotyped pattern for their use, but evidence indicates that careful preparation should be made by considering such factors as the instructional purpose, flexibility, timeliness, simplicity and unity, colorfulness, and visibility of the aid.⁴³

The Navy is well acquainted with training aids, since they were used extensively during and after the recent war. However, a criticism of military use of aids was made by a consensus of opinions of educators who were members of the various services during the war.⁴⁴ The complaint was that the attempt was often made to place the heaviest burden of the teaching process on the aid rather than on the teacher. Industrial supervisory training has experienced this

⁴³ Ibid., pp. 437-8.

⁴⁴ M. M. Chambers, "Armed Forces Educational Programs," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, revised edition, Macmillan Company, New York, 1950, pp. 58-64.

need, knowledge and skills, productivity, and stability of
factors as the individual himself. Flexibility, simi-
larly, is a characteristic which is not to be overlooked and
which may be developed for their own and common interests
and especially in some cases. There exists an
attention to all the business as well as the process itself,
operation and information is also given, however, the
positive attitude, leading to a fairly normal operation,
in part ways. Some times more than enough is given to the
individual and some criticism by the leader's process

the body is still immature, with cartilage, which, since they were last extensively injured, has often the power to

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same difficulty, despite the fact that the consensus is that training aids alone cannot do a training job. However, present supervisory training programs strive to guard against this error by proper use of them as a supplement to other methods.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

SUMMARY

This study has discussed supervision and supervisory training in an effort to offer a proposal for improving supervision in the Navy. The broad field of supervision has been reduced to the two or three lower levels in industry, commonly referred to as the foreman level. A search for an adequate Navy counterpart revealed the Chief Petty Officer as meeting similar requirements for the supervisory functions performed by the foreman. Further basis for comparison was obtained from an historical recording of the evolutions of these two men, their jobs, selection procedures, and supervisory training. Navy schooling and the influence of the Bureau of Personnel on the Chief Petty Officer were indicated. Having compared the two supervisory positions, a discussion of leadership and the practicability for training leaders were presented. In this presentation, the findings and opinions of research workers were contrasted with those of the practical men of action in industry and the military forces. Evidence of Navy and industrial attempts to develop supervisory ability through formal training was indicated, and a review was made of the current training methods for foremen to determine which were the

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most commonly used and potentially effective for military use. Those methods selected were described, discussed pro and con, and offered as a proposal for improving supervision by Chief Petty Officers through classroom training within local commands.

The material pertaining to the foreman was obtained from published books, pamphlets, and current periodicals. Navy periodicals, current official publications, and personal experience of the author, furnished the information concerning the Chief Petty Officer and his training. Data on leadership and training methods were obtained from a wide variety of available literature.

CONCLUSIONS

This study has indicated many important points which might well be considered by anyone proposing formal training as an approach to improving supervision. These are suggested as guiding principles for any such program; the list is not complete and no implication is made that all those included are applicable in every situation.

1. There is, as yet, no "one-best" formal method of training supervisors. A combination of sound teaching techniques should be determined for each particular situation. Selection of methods should be primarily based on the material being considered, the educational background

and experience of the trainees, and the organization and circumstances under which the training is to be conducted.

2. To be most effective, training must be accepted by the trainee. This implies that the goals and approaches to them should be determined by the training group; when such are consistent with the objectives of the organization, the probability of acceptance of the training content is increased.

3. The social atmosphere of the supervisor's place of work should approximate the teaching atmosphere of the classroom. The extent to which the supervisor is permitted to put what he learns into practice is greatly determined by the relationships between the two. In fact, the causes for many unsuccessful training programs have been traced to mere verbal acceptance of training objectives by the higher echelons unaccompanied with more positive support through action.

4. Training for leadership is a continuing process, because leadership is dynamic and constantly changing. The leader, the led, and the particular situation are the three primary factors of leadership, and a change in any one of these alters the demands made on the product.

5. There exists no objective or direct measurement of supervisory ability. Consequently, all attempts at evaluation of supervisory training have used indirect

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measures, which are usually subject to uncontrollable factors. Any such results should be valued accordingly, although not discarded as wholly useless.

6. Active participation is a key to efficient supervisory training. Evidence accumulates that meaningful participation is a key to efficient learning in any field of activity. This hypothesis has been accepted for many years in teaching job skills, but it has only recently been adopted for human relations training.

7. The supervisor must recognize the individual and individual differences in his working relationships with people. The worth and dignity of the human man is an active, creative force throughout the world. Its impact on the working atmosphere has been felt and must be reconciled by fair supervisory treatment, supported by action as well as being expressed verbally.

8. The conference method, or some variation of it, is rapidly becoming the basis for all formal supervisory training. With the major emphasis in supervisory training being placed on human relations, the conference method has been selected because of its psychological and teaching advantages in this field.

9. Supervisory training should be conducted among trainees of comparable position and experience. The size of the training group should be such as to allow the partici-

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pation desired; past experience indicates that groups of ten to twenty-five members give successful results.

10. Training programs should be flexible, although not totally lacking in direction. Those which are rigidly structured and controlled regarding times of meeting, attendance requirements, program content, and other factors, have been generally less successful. In other words, training officers and program directors must also recognize supervisors as individuals with significant differences, and must consider these when undertaking any programs which affect them.

11. A sense of belonging is a basic human need, and it can be fostered greatly through cooperative group action in any organization. Supervisory training aids in this process by relating individual effort to organizational goals.

12. Supervisory training is an excellent means of communication since it usually employs non-authoritarian methods. Acceptance of the policies and regulations by the supervisory force will greatly enhance the possibility that the rank and file will also.

Emphasis is again made that these are some, and by no means all, of the suggested principles which were gained from the literature.

1. The first point to be made is that the Commission has been very successful in its work. It has been able to bring about a number of important changes in the way in which the Commission operates. These changes have been brought about by the Commission's own initiative and by the help of the Council of Ministers. The Commission has been able to bring about a number of important changes in the way in which it operates. These changes have been brought about by the Commission's own initiative and by the help of the Council of Ministers. The Commission has been able to bring about a number of important changes in the way in which it operates. These changes have been brought about by the Commission's own initiative and by the help of the Council of Ministers.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are offered to improve the effectiveness of training within local commands:

1. Wider dissemination of related information on training conducted within local commands should be made as a means of further guidance to training officers in the fleet units.
2. The Navy should be acquainted with the objectives and methods of supervisory training conducted by progressive industrial organizations for possible adoption of effective training techniques.
3. All officers and the higher rated petty officers should be schooled in the conference procedure and the techniques of conference leadership.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are offered to improve the effectiveness of training within local communities:

1. Prior identification of relevant information on training materials within local communities should be made as a means of further guidance to training efforts in the field.

2. The way in which the knowledge is the objectives and methods of community training should be presented in a logical sequence for the benefit of the community.

3. All efforts and the highest rated efforts should be included in the evaluation procedure and the feedback of evaluation results.

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APPENDIX

1914

1. General - The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been appointed to the various positions in the Department of the Interior, for the year 1914.

2. Secretary - The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been appointed to the position of Secretary of the Department of the Interior, for the year 1914.

3. Assistant Secretary - The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been appointed to the position of Assistant Secretary of the Department of the Interior, for the year 1914.

4. Chief of Bureau - The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been appointed to the position of Chief of Bureau of the Department of the Interior, for the year 1914.

5. Deputy Chief of Bureau - The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been appointed to the position of Deputy Chief of Bureau of the Department of the Interior, for the year 1914.

6. Assistant Chief of Bureau - The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been appointed to the position of Assistant Chief of Bureau of the Department of the Interior, for the year 1914.

7. Chief of Division - The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been appointed to the position of Chief of Division of the Department of the Interior, for the year 1914.

8. Deputy Chief of Division - The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been appointed to the position of Deputy Chief of Division of the Department of the Interior, for the year 1914.

9. Assistant Chief of Division - The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been appointed to the position of Assistant Chief of Division of the Department of the Interior, for the year 1914.

10. Chief of Office - The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been appointed to the position of Chief of Office of the Department of the Interior, for the year 1914.

11. Deputy Chief of Office - The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been appointed to the position of Deputy Chief of Office of the Department of the Interior, for the year 1914.

12. Assistant Chief of Office - The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been appointed to the position of Assistant Chief of Office of the Department of the Interior, for the year 1914.

13. Chief of Section - The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been appointed to the position of Chief of Section of the Department of the Interior, for the year 1914.

14. Deputy Chief of Section - The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been appointed to the position of Deputy Chief of Section of the Department of the Interior, for the year 1914.

15. Assistant Chief of Section - The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been appointed to the position of Assistant Chief of Section of the Department of the Interior, for the year 1914.

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APPENDIX I

YOUR NAVY CAREER

No. 33

UNITED STATES NAVY VOCATIONAL INFORMATION BRIEF



Electrician's Mate (EM)

Large naval vessels have been, in instances of emergency, the sources of supply of electrical power for several coastal cities. The operation and repair of electrical plants powerful enough to provide such service, as well as the maintenance and repair of the ship's electrical equipment, is the work of the Electrician's Mates.

DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

Electrician's Mates install, operate, maintain, and repair such equipment as generators, electrical motors, searchlights, yardarm blinkers, and the lighting and power-distribution systems found aboard ship. They test circuits for shorts, grounds, and other casualties, and perform electrical shop work including the refinding of armatures and the maintenance of storage batteries.

Some of the duties of Electrician's Mates are as follows:

- (1) Circuits and wiring: Install or replace power and lighting circuits aboard ship; repair open circuits; find and clear grounds; and run wiring for fans, call bells, and lights.
- (2) Distribution Panels and Switchboards: Clean, check, and repair distribution panels, switches, and switchboards; lubricate controllers; and maintain and repair voltage regulators.
- (3) Transformers: Maintain and repair current and voltage transformers.
- (4) Generators: Clean, lubricate, and repair generating equipment.
- (5) Motors: Clean, lubricate, and perform upkeep on electric motors; and wind, bake, and insulate armatures and field coils for electric motors.
- (6) Electrical Equipment: Repair electrical equipment of ship's boats, including the ignition system; and repair electrical appliances such as toasters, electric drills, and sterilizers.
- (7) Batteries: Install and repair storage batteries.
- (8) Searchlights: Operate and perform upkeep on searchlights.
- (9) Tests and Inspections: Test and inspect all ship-board electrical power apparatus using voltmeters, ammeters, ohmmeters, wattmeters, and circuit analyzers.

(10) Electrical Connections: Connect electrical power machinery and electrical power equipment including generators and distribution switchboards; splice wire and cable; and solder electrical connections.

(11) Blueprints: Read and prepare electrical sketches, diagrams, and blueprints.

In the course of their training and experience, Electrician's Mates develop skills in and a knowledge of the following:

(1) Electricity: Electrical theory and its practical ship-board application in motors, generators, transformers, switchboards, control appliances, and other electrical equipment; three-wire and four-wire transmission systems; alternating and direct current; wiring diagrams and electrical circuits; Ohm's and Kirchoff's laws; and electron theory.

(2) Power Equipment: Theory, construction, and characteristics of A.C. and D.C. motors, controllers, generators, voltage regulators, and current and voltage transformers; and the layout and installation of switchboards and panels.

(3) Theory: Theory of the vacuum tube; theory and operating principles of the various types of synchro units used in interior communications and fire control; theory of the gyroscope; and the theory of dry cell and storage batteries.

(4) Mathematics: Ratio, proportion, decimals, fractions, and percentages.

Electrician's Mates in the lower pay grades generally perform the routine duties, while those in the higher pay grades perform more technical duties and instruct and supervise the others.

WORK ASSIGNMENT

Electrician's Mates serve on all types of ships and at naval shipyards and bases. It is the basic policy of the Navy to rotate its personnel between sea or advanced base assignments and assignments within the continental limits.



Electrician's Mate standing watch at a distribution board in a battleship

ELECTRICIAN'S MATE — NAVY No. 33



QUALIFICATIONS AND PREPARATION

Candidates for the School for Electrician's Mates must qualify on the Navy Arithmetic Test, which measures the ability to use numbers in practical problems; and on the Navy Mechanical Test, which measures potential ability for work of a mechanical nature, and indicates the extent of familiarity with mechanical and electrical tools, principles, and operations.

School courses in electrical shop, practical and shop mathematics, and physics are helpful. Previous experience in electrical work is advantageous.

TRAINING GIVEN

Upon entering the Navy all personnel are sent to a Recruit Training Center for fourteen weeks of indoctrination and basic training, guidance, and classification. Upon completion of this period, training for the work of Electrician's Mates is provided in Navy Training Schools, through on-the-job training, and through the study of training manuals furnished by the Navy. Some of the areas covered in the school for Electrician's Mates are as follows:

- (1) Fundamentals of electricity
- (2) Electric properties of wires and cables
- (3) Principles of batteries
- (4) Fundamentals of magnetism
- (5) Electrical measuring instruments and their applications.
- (6) Fundamentals of electrical equipment such as generators and motors
- (7) Principles of D.C. and A.C. circuits.
- (8) Elementary mathematics and physics which include factoring, decimals, percentage, force and motion, and stress
- (9) Soldering and brazing of electrical equipment.

PATH OF ADVANCEMENT

Seaman Recruit or Fireman Recruit
Fireman Apprentice
Fireman

See Brief
No. 63

Electrician's Mates Third Class
Electrician's Mate Second Class
Electrician's Mate First Class
Chief Electrician's Mate (Acting)
Chief Electrician's Mate

Warrant Officer
Commissioned Warrant Officer
Commissioned Officer

See Brief
No. 65

RELATED NAVAL OCCUPATIONS

- Aviation Electrician's Mate (AE)
(See Brief No. 53)
Construction Electrician's Mate (CE)
(See Brief No. 41)
Interior Communications Electrician (IC)
(See Brief No. 34)

RELATED CIVILIAN JOBS

Training and experience in the Navy provide personnel with the background, skills, and knowledge for many civilian occupations. The extent to which they will be prepared or qualified for these occupations will depend to a great extent on the breadth of their Navy experience and the degree of advancement they have achieved, as well as upon any occupational or apprenticeship credit granted by civilian authority of one type or another.

Some civilian jobs that are closely related to the ones performed by Electrician's Mates are listed below:

Electrician
Electric Motor Repairman
Electrical Repair Shop Foreman
Electrical Equipment Inspector
Electrical Appliance Serviceman
Ship Electrician
Electrical Repairman
Electrical Instrument Repairman

EMERGENCY SERVICE RATINGS

In time of national emergency this occupation will be sub-divided into the following emergency service occupations.

- Electrician's Mate P (Power and Light Electrician) (EMP)
Electrician's Mate S (Shop Electrician) (EMS)



Electrician's Mates checking a motor

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APPENDIX II

Extract From The Shipboard Training Manual

LEADERSHIP. One of the major fields of knowledge in which every officer, petty officer, and petty officer striker must be trained is administration and supervision, if they are to fulfill the function of a leader, that is, to get the job done through people. Any supervisor must have five classes of knowledge. They are:

(1) Knowledge of the job which he is to supervise and a reasonable amount of skill in the performance of that job.

(2) Knowledge of policy (regulations and standard operating procedures) sufficient to enable him to interpret and administer that policy.

(3) Knowledge of how to handle men in such a way as to get the greatest possible production. It is evident that the relationships of the leader with his men will have a direct bearing on morale, over-leave, and reenlistment. Low morale, high over-leave rate, and low percentage of reenlistment may all be evidences of poor leadership and will adversely affect production and operation. This very broad topic may be further divided into many sub-topics such as:

(a) Effect of "example."

(b) "Consistency" of discipline.

CHAPTER II

History from the beginning of the world.

CHAPTER II. The first part of the world is divided into three parts: the first part is the world of the living, the second part is the world of the dead, and the third part is the world of the future. The first part is the world of the living, and it is divided into three parts: the first part is the world of the living, the second part is the world of the dead, and the third part is the world of the future. The first part is the world of the living, and it is divided into three parts: the first part is the world of the living, the second part is the world of the dead, and the third part is the world of the future.

(1) The first part of the world is the world of the living, and it is divided into three parts: the first part is the world of the living, the second part is the world of the dead, and the third part is the world of the future. The first part is the world of the living, and it is divided into three parts: the first part is the world of the living, the second part is the world of the dead, and the third part is the world of the future.

(2) The second part of the world is the world of the dead, and it is divided into three parts: the first part is the world of the dead, the second part is the world of the dead, and the third part is the world of the future. The second part is the world of the dead, and it is divided into three parts: the first part is the world of the dead, the second part is the world of the dead, and the third part is the world of the future.

(3) The third part of the world is the world of the future, and it is divided into three parts: the first part is the world of the future, the second part is the world of the future, and the third part is the world of the future. The third part is the world of the future, and it is divided into three parts: the first part is the world of the future, the second part is the world of the future, and the third part is the world of the future.

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(4) The fourth part of the world is the world of the future, and it is divided into three parts: the first part is the world of the future, the second part is the world of the future, and the third part is the world of the future.

(5) The fifth part of the world is the world of the future, and it is divided into three parts: the first part is the world of the future, the second part is the world of the future, and the third part is the world of the future.

(c) Need for "feeling of security."

In brief, anything affecting the mental, moral, or physical well-being of his men is the concern of the leader.

(4) Knowledge of job methods. This involves shop or work area arrangement, assigning men to jobs, and otherwise carrying the work with the greatest possible efficiency.

(5) Knowledge of instructional methods. The bringing of each man to his maximum operational efficiency through training is the direct and immediate responsibility of the supervisor. This involves stimulating the man to a desire to further his own career through self-study and improvement.

101 West 1st Street, New York, N.Y.

In brief, the following is a summary of the results of the investigation of the case of the defendant, who is now in the custody of the New York State Prison, at Sing Sing, New York.

(1) The defendant is a white male, born in New York, and is now in the custody of the New York State Prison, at Sing Sing, New York.

(2) The defendant is a white male, born in New York, and is now in the custody of the New York State Prison, at Sing Sing, New York.

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Very truly yours,
 J. Edgar Hoover

APPENDIX III

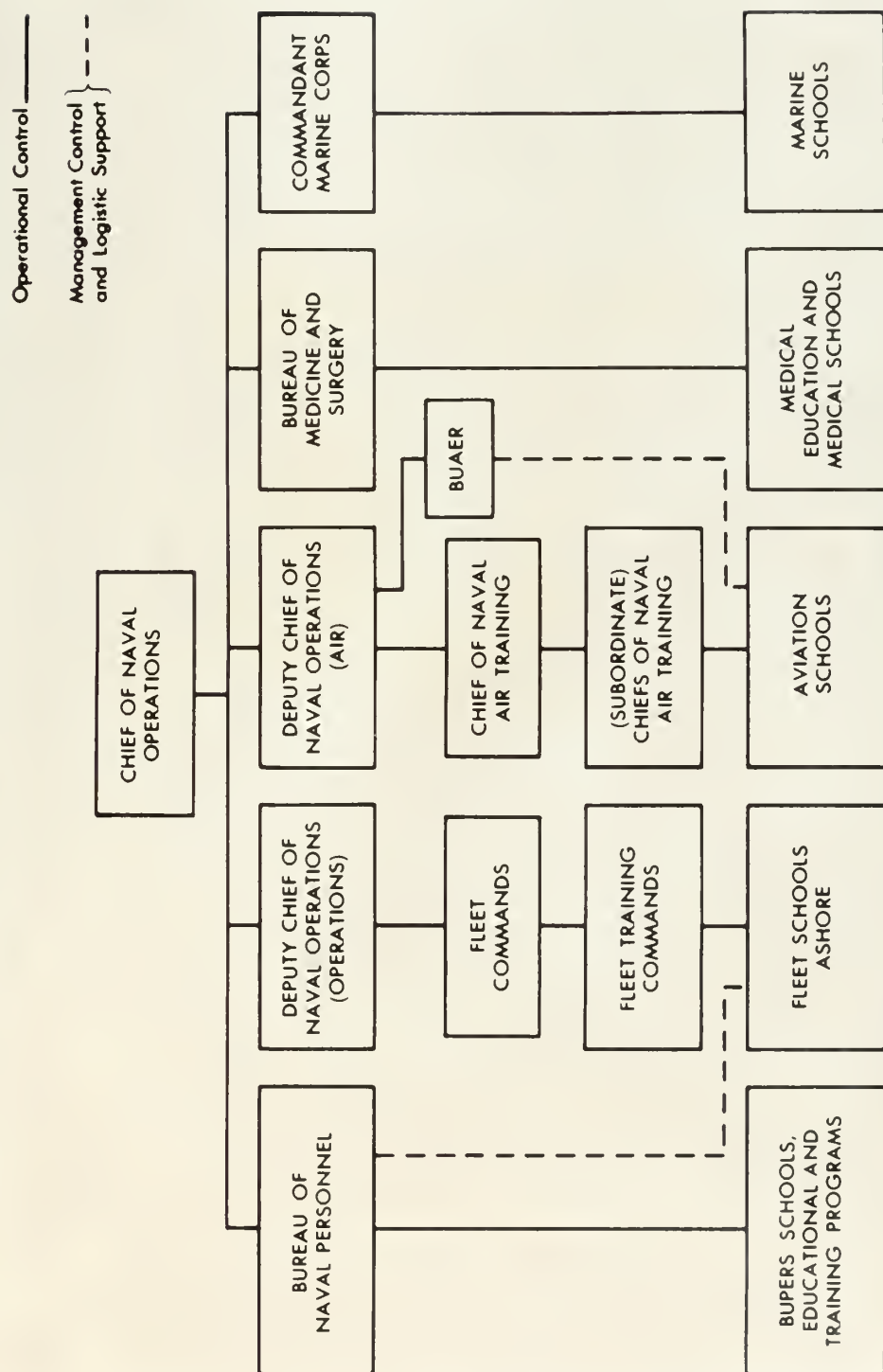


Chart showing the placement of education and training responsibilities in the naval establishment. For simplicity, material bureaus, such as BuShips, BuOrd, and BuDocks, which provide technical guidance and training equipment to schools as appropriate have been omitted from this chart.



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